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REVIEW OF POLITICS.

THE Austrians and Prussians have not yet attacked Düppel, and there is reason to think that such an operation is not in immediate contemplation. They are probably awaiting the arrival of the Austrian fleet, which is no doubt destined for service in the Baltic, notwithstanding the assurances to the contrary which our Government have received, but in which Earl Russell evidently places little confidence. The combined German squadrons would then be more than a match for the naval force of Denmark; the flanks of the position at Düppel would be turned, and, as the Earl of Ellenborough observed the other night in the House of Lords, it is almost certain that both the islands of Alsen and Funen would fall into the hands of the invader. Nay, there is no reason why even Copenhagen itself should be safe from attack. That it would be attacked, if this could be done with any prospect of success, seems highly probable from the manner in which the two allied Powers are now carrying on the war. They have cast aside any pretence of confining their operations to Slesvig; or of making only such a lodgment in Jutland as may be necessary to secure the safety of their forces in the Duchy. Both Austrians and Prussians have crossed the Kölding in great strength, and it is evidently intended to form the siege of Fredericia as soon as possible, with the ultimate design of occupying the whole of the Danish province, of which it is the principal stronghold. In the meantime, the conduct of the civil commissioners, to whom the allies have entrusted the government of Slesvig, is quite inconsistent with the notion that that Duchy is only occupied as a material guarantee. The use of the Danish language in official business has been forbidden even in those parts of the Duchy where it is the ordinary speech of the people. The Danish currency has been abolished as a legal tender and its place has been supplied by what is called "the Slesvig-Holstein currency" and by the thalers of the German States. These are obviously the acts of conquerors who mean to keep what they have taken, and not the acts of Powers who have been reluctantly compelled to take possession of part of the dominions of a friendly sovereign, as a pledge for the fulfilment of promises which he is supposed to have broken.

According to Earl Russell, Austria and Prussia still declare their readiness to respect the integrity of Denmark. So far as diplomatic professions go, nothing can be further from their thoughts than any idea of territorial aggrandisement. They still pay to their obligations under the Treaty of 1852 the tribute which vice is said to render to virtue in the shape of hypocrisy. But it is impossible not to observe that from day to day their deeds more and more belie their words, and that at every stage of the lawless

transaction in which they are engaged these so-called Conservative Powers manifest an increasing disregard of their engagements, of their plighted word, and of the consequences of their violent infraction of the peace of Europe. We were amongst those who clung as long as possible—perhaps longer than we ought—to the belief that prudence and good faith were not extinct in Austrian statesmen. So many considerations warned them that the prosperity, and even the existence, of their Empire lay in following the paths of peace, that it seemed impossible they should not seize any available opportunity of withdrawing from the false and dangerous position into which they had been forced. But there is reason to fear that such hopes are entirely groundless. The determination of Prussia to push matters to the last extremity has obviously conquered the hesitation of the court of Vienna. M. von Bismarck virtually directs the policy of the allied Powers; and that policy is such as might be expected from a Minister—and such a Minister—of Prussia. Bad faith, a cynical disregard of the rights of other nations, and a spirit of self-aggrandisement, have characterised the conduct of this Power ever since it emerged from the obscurity of the electorate of Brandenburg. It has, however, possessed statesmen who have recognised the expediency of throwing a veil of decency over its sins against justice, morality, and honour. But neither the head nor the heart of the present Prime Minister lead him to care for trifles like these. He delights in parading a contempt of all restraints upon his own self-will. The papers lately presented to Parliament furnish abundant proofs of the recklessness with which he pursues his objects—whatever they may happen to be. Nor have we recently seen in Europe so flagrant a departure from solemn assurances given by the Minister of a great power as has taken place in the occupation of Jutland by the Prussian forces. We were told in the first instance that the advance beyond the boundaries of Slesvig was all a mistake; then we were informed that although it was an error, it was one of so advantageous a character, that it would be persisted in for strategic reasons; but now all reserve is cast aside, and the intention to occupy the whole of this purely Danish province is openly avowed. It is probable that the first conception of this project is due to Prussia; but there is no doubt that Austria has now consented to assist in its execution, and that, willingly or unwillingly, she has become the accomplice of her rival. Statesmen may still find it necessary or expedient to profess a belief that these two Powers retain some respect for the obligations which they have contracted towards Europe; but those who are untrammelled by official ties need not conceal their participation in the general opinion, that unless they are restrained by the armed intervention of

other powers Austria and Prussia have made up their minds first to subjugate and then to dismember Denmark. We regret to say that such an intervention seems almost as distant as ever. In spite of popular demonstrations at Stockholm, the Government of Sweden still refuses to stir. France makes no sign, although the semi-official papers have within the last few days been instructed to display some slight interest in the fate of an ancient ally. Our own Ministers are content to publish to the world their confidence that the English fleet is more than a match for those of Austria and Prussia, but they cautiously refrain from pledging themselves to prevent the German Powers assuming on the Baltic a maritime supremacy which must lay Denmark at their feet. As for the proposed conference few expect that it will ever meet; fewer still expect anything from it if it does. There is apparently every reason to expect that a war which Lord Ellenborough very justly compared to that which ended in the partition of Poland, will be permitted to pursue its course. The day of retribution will undoubtedly arrive, but however well deserved may be the probable consequences of their misdeeds, it is a poor satisfaction to those who care for the maintenance of the European equilibrium, that Austria and Prussia are now affording a precedent for other aggressions of which they will be the victims.

The Opposition in Parliament have not yet made up their minds to a direct attack upon the policy which her Majesty's Ministers have pursued towards Denmark and Germany. Questions are asked; and criticism is almost nightly insinuated under cover of demands for additional papers. But the Conservative leaders still shrink from saying what in their opinion the Government ought to have done or ought now to do. There is no doubt that the task which naturally devolves upon them as Opposition chiefs is rendered very difficult by the insubordination of a portion of their followers; and that it has not been facilitated by some portions of the papers last presented to Parliament, which show that Lord Palmerston and his colleagues were not unwilling to lend Denmark material assistance, if France would have consented to act with us. The Government will certainly make the most of this, as they have a perfect right to do; but it is an obvious reply that if they meant the action of England to be dependent upon the co-operation of France, they ought to have told the Danes so from the first. They did not do this, possibly because they never imagined that Louis Napoleon would be content to sit still and watch the progress of German aggression. But if they have been outwitted by the astute occupant of the Tuileries, who is yet biding his time, that is no reason for shirking the performance of engagements which were implied by the whole course of their bearing and conduct towards Denmark. That we incurred an honourable obligation to stand by the little Scandinavian kingdom in case she followed our advice—as she did—must, we think, be clear to every one who reads the despatches already in our hands. This is a point which can be made no clearer by additional papers of later date; and there is, therefore, no reason why Lord Derby and Mr. Disraeli should not at once take the opinion of Parliament upon the conduct of her Majesty's Government. We must infer from their inaction that they are not prepared to offer Parliament the only advice which could justify them in censuring the existing administration. But if they are not, it would certainly be as well that they should abstain from the use of language which is calculated still further to delude the Danes, by inducing them to believe that a powerful English party is in favour of going to war in their defence.

There appears ground for believing that the Austrian Government is really alarmed at the condition of Galicia. Their panic may be foolish, but it bears the marks of sincerity. We regret, however, to be compelled to add, that their recent proceedings tend to confirm the notion that something like a revival of the Holy Alliance has taken place. Indications are not wanting that Austria, Prussia, and Russia have come to an understanding for the protection of their common interests. If there were nothing of the kind in existence, the concentration of 120,000 Russian troops on the Gallician frontier would before this have formed the subject of remonstrance on the part of Austria. It would most likely have led to the assembling of an equivalent force by that Power. Instead of this, however, as the Russians approach near enough to overawe the Poles of Galicia, the forces of Francis Joseph

are withdrawn towards Hungary. That sort of *solidarité* seems to be established between these Powers which leaves each at liberty to direct its efforts against the nationality which it most dreads. Nor is it at all improbable that Prussia will be ready to guarantee the Emperor of Austria in the possession of his remaining Italian possessions, in return for the promise of active support against French aggression on the Rhine. There has been for some time an alliance between Prussia and Russia on the basis of that which obtains between the lion and the jackal. Such a confederacy may last long enough to do serious injury to the best interests of Europe; but it is quite impossible that it should be attended with more than a temporary success. The former Holy Alliance came, as we all know, to a miserable end; and the thirty-five years that have since elapsed have not improved the prospects of a similar combination. It would again drive England and France into an intimate alliance, and would lead them to display an active sympathy with the nationalities that are either now oppressed or are threatened with oppression. It might precipitate the war of opinion which many politicians and statesmen have been so long expecting; but it would certainly not succeed in permanently reimposing upon the Continent of Europe the fetters of military domination and despotic rule.

The Emperor Napoleon has at length secured a sovereign for Mexico. The last doubt and hesitation of the Archduke Maximilian have vanished; and it is now certain that he will forthwith proceed to his dominions, and mount what it is usual to describe as the throne of Montezuma. It is understood that in return for the empire which has been thus generously bestowed upon him, he will acknowledge in the name of his subjects a debt to France of some 230 million francs, in respect of the expense of their deliverance from Juarez. On the other hand, France will still contribute by the presence of a *corps d'armée* to maintain the stability of the institutions which she has erected. It is no doubt the sincere hope of Louis Napoleon that he may thus escape from an embarrassment which has certainly occasioned him much annoyance. The conquest of Mexico, even so far as it has yet been accomplished, has proved far more costly in men than was anticipated, while it has from first to last been viewed with aversion by the French people. Moreover, it is hardly desirable that a considerable portion of the French army should be on the other side of the Atlantic under the present circumstances of Europe. We can well believe, therefore, that the Archduke has obtained very favourable terms from his imperial patron. But at the same time it is as well that he should not indulge in over-sanguine anticipations. The power of Juarez is broken; perhaps there is nothing like an army in the field under a native leader. But there is every reason to distrust the temper of the people, and to disbelieve in that exuberant loyalty which they have been encouraged to display under the protection of French bayonets. Unless the "foreign legion" which is to be left behind is so strong that its commander will be the real ruler of Mexico, it is extremely probable that the departure of the French army will be the signal for the outbreak of a troublesome guerilla and partizan war. Under the most favourable circumstances the task of restoring anything like order to such a country must be one of enormous difficulty.

The military intelligence received from America during the past week is of considerable importance. It turns out that General Sherman's movements are directed, as was at first stated, against the city of Mobile; and are not part of a complicated scheme of operations against the Confederate armies in Georgia and Tennessee. This active commander has displayed his usual energy in pushing on as rapidly as possible, with a view to take his antagonists unprepared, if not exactly unawares. At the date of the latest telegrams he had already advanced 140 miles from Vicksburg without meeting with any opposition; and it was expected that eight days more would bring him in front of Mobile. In order to enable him to advance as fast as he thought necessary, he has been compelled to march without siege guns, and he will therefore have to trust to an immediate assault for carrying the defences of a city which has, we believe, been carefully fortified. The Confederates certainly ought to be able to defeat such an attempt; and in that case Sherman's position, 250 miles from his basis of operation, would be rather critical. Nothing but decisive success can rescue him from the peril which he has voluntarily incurred, by a movement which victory alone can justify in a military point of view.

Already one source of support has failed him. His measures were taken in the expectation that Admiral Farragut would be able to reach Mobile with his fleet by the Grand Pass. But if we may believe the accounts which have reached us the Admiral has received a severe repulse from the batteries with which this narrow passage is lined; and he has not since thought fit to resume his attack. Under these circumstances there is every ground for hoping that the Confederates will be enabled to maintain their hold upon this important city. In Tennessee Longstreet has broken up his winter quarters and is on the move, but his operations are not sufficiently developed to indicate their object with any clearness. Neither General Lee nor General Meade appear in any great hurry to open the campaign on the Potomac. But it is rather significant that while current rumour ascribes to the first an intention of immediate advance, it ascribes to the latter an intention to reorganize his army. The attention of the people of the Northern States appears, however, to be no longer engrossed by the achievements or failures of their armies. As the Presidential election approaches, the struggle which is to decide not merely who is to govern the country for the next four years, but who are to fill all the offices and enjoy the most profitable contracts, gradually absorbs the interest of a practical people. The Republican party are at present to all appearances hopelessly divided. Mr. Lincoln is deserted by a large portion of those who were formerly his most energetic supporters; and there is every indication that his popularity has sunk to a low ebb. It is, however, understood that he will not relinquish office without at least a strenuous effort to secure his re-election for another term. General Butler has some friends, and so has General Fremont; but it is probable that the largest and most influential section of the Republican party will rally round Mr. Chase, the present Secretary to the Treasury. On the other hand, the Democrats have put forth no one but General McClellan, who seems still to be popular with the army. If this party still retained anything like its former power and influence, it ought, under these circumstances, to elect its candidate. But it has of late shown such utter feebleness, that its success is almost out of the question. If Mr. Lincoln really desires to be re-elected, he will most likely attain his object. The number of his opponents will materially facilitate the application of those dexterous electioneering tactics in which he is a proficient; and the civil and military, legal and financial agencies which will be at his disposal for the next twelve months, give him an advantage over his rivals which we do not expect that he will throw away from any fantastic sentiment of public duty or political purity.

THE POLICY OF WAR OR PEACE.

THAT England fights not except for her honour or interests is the new *mot d'ordre* of the exponents of her European policy. Honour and interest are, indeed, ideas large enough, if they are understood in their true sense. In that sense they are identical, and they are only synonyms for noble philanthropy and for Christian duty. But not such is the sense in which diplomacy and trading journalism use the phrase "honour and interest." With these authorities, honour means only a literal adherence to a formal and legal pledge; interest means only the advantage which will appear in the figures of the next budget. So, whenever England has not signed a bond whose terms cannot be evaded, these counsellors hold her free from obligation; and whenever it cannot be proved that we shall be immediately the richer, they hold her interests not involved. So honour becomes in this creed gradually swallowed up in interest, and interest is interpreted in a sense even more and more gross, mean, and shallow.

Yet let us pause ere we advance further in this downward track, in which we are becoming rapidly isolated from the sympathy of mankind and accumulating the reproach of universal treachery, and ask ourselves whether regard to interest in this sense does really pay? There are three notable examples in modern history of what has followed from our resolve to look only to interest rather than to right. The first is the partition of Poland, the second is the intervention of Russia in Hungary, the third is the Italian uprising of 1860. In all these cases tortured and writhing nations have cried to us for aid, and we have answered them with words of advice. In all these cases we shrank from the side of acknowledged right and justice, because it might have involved us in a war. What followed?

We did not make peace by crying "Peace! peace!" when there was no peace. We were, in the two former cases, forced into war but a few years after; and we found that all our gain was that the nations we had refused to help were now against us. Poland sent her cavalry to fight on the side of Napoleon, only because we had flung them off. On many a bloody field they turned the tide of victory, and beyond a doubt they prolonged a war which cost us all but our own existence as a nation. Could we but have foreseen that by aiding Poland in time we should have detached from France her most gallant and steadfast ally, and raised up at once a barrier to the overflow of Gallic enthusiasm and a defence against subsequent Scythian inroad, would it not have seemed wise and prudent to spend in that precaution some of the blood which flowed afterwards in Spain, and some of that wealth which subsidised Germany? Or could we have foreseen that when we stood by and saw the Russian hordes overrun Hungary, which the butcher Haynau with his Austrians was no longer able to hold in chains, we were encouraging the Siberian swarm to an attack on Turkey that perilled our Indian empire, while binding Austria by terror and gratitude to hold aloof from us when we were at last forced to fight, would it not have been wise economy in us to have averted the siege of Sebastopol by an earlier demonstration in the Baltic, and to have aided in the establishment of a constitutional kingdom which by the law of its existence must have been an ever ready and ever deadly foe to Russia? And if, not having the gift of prescience, we are not yet able to see the full consequences of our abstinence from aid to Italy when she was struggling to throw off her German oppressors, we may yet recall that by leaving her to the sole help of France we compelled her cession of Savoy; and we may comfortably compute the cost of our economy, if a brigade drawn from the active mountaineers of the Alps shall be, we know not how soon, arrayed in the host against us instead of in the ranks of our allies.

These instances, and they might easily be multiplied in number, will certainly suggest that the pursuit of only immediate and obvious self-interest may prove after all but a foolish and costly policy. We have not, by strenuously proclaiming that we should not go to war, been saved from war. Our policy has only made war inevitable, while at the same time it has cooled our friends and strengthened our enemies. Nor has the result of war at last brought us compensating advantages. How different would the stability of Europe and of civilization have been now, had we a reconstituted Poland and a constitutional Hungary for our outposts against Russian aggression, from what it actually is with both these nations absorbed in despotic states, and, if still restless at home, yet furnishing their recruits to the armies of the Caucasus and of Slesvig-Holstein. And if we now stand by and see Denmark partitioned, who that is not struck with the blindness of Mammon-worship can fail to see new strength added to those foes of liberty with whom we must, sooner or later, close in the death-grapple?

For it is alike vain and impious to say, in our insular pride, that we have no concern with the affairs of Europe, and that we, secure, may leave others to fight out their own quarrels. That eternal law which knits together the interests and the happiness of all mankind, which makes the prosperity of this, the greatest and wealthiest empire on the face of the globe, sensibly depend on the satisfaction and contentment of scarce known tribes of savages at the antipodes, forbids us thus to withdraw from a common sympathy of suffering with our fellows. If Europe, falling under despotisms, ceases to make progress in civilization, what becomes of the boasted expansion of our trade? If, leagued together by "personal government" and dynastic alliance, the Continent becomes our foe, whence is to be found our succour? Let us not dream that what happened so late as the beginning of this century is sure never to happen again. But let us remember that when at that period the greater part of Europe was arrayed against us, we were never wholly friendless. Either Spain or Scandinavia, either Prussia or Russia, was found on our side, because they trusted that we were not fighting solely for ourselves. Had we stood alone, we must in all human probability have succumbed. But when we have avowed that we shall never fight henceforth save for our own private interests, who will then be on our side in the hour of need? Who will not rather join to plunder and to dismember us, and seem almost justified in the sight of earth and Heaven in wreaking retribution on the haughty insolence of avowed selfishness?

We may then be very sure that we cannot by any cunning policy throw off the burden of duty to evade the consequence of criminal indifference. The Foreign Office and the organ of the Stock Exchange cannot alter the Divine decrees by which the world is ruled. They cannot by the profoundest arguments

force an early crop of figs from thistles. To stand aloof when our neighbour is attacked and beaten by robbers is neither more nor less than a crime and a sin, and we may be sure it will bear as fruit the penalties of sin. And who is our neighbour? Once, long ago, the question was asked, so long ago that we seem to have forgotten the answer. But the answer was not unsuited to the present need. We were taught that our neighbour is not only the man of our own tribe and race, but even one of alien blood, of hostile faith, of competing interests. The Samaritan was neighbour even to the Jew. Dare we take the Gospel in our right hand and now proclaim that we are neighbours only to those of British descent, for the sake of personal profit, and that we are justified in passing by on the other side because it is only a Dane who has fallen among thieves? Or do we think that nations are free from the duties that are laid upon men? Do we fancy that a defiance of Christ's command, which would send us, if done by individuals, among that woeful crowd on which are ranged the accursed who held aloof from the naked, the sick, and those in prison, will be held innocent if it is done by our vote in the House of Commons and by a despatch from the Foreign Office? By no such sophistry can our consciences be stilled. They tell us that the nation is but an aggregate of individuals, and that their collective acts imply the personal responsibility of those who assent to them. And the conscience of the nation is sound on this matter. The working men, who have all to lose by any check to trade, are ready to give our armed help to Poland or to Denmark. Lord Shaftesbury speaks for them, the strength of England, in the highest assemblage of English honour. Lord Grey gives words to the chivalry of England in the like sense. Only senile weakness among our rulers, and the worldly prudence which measures right and truth, honour and duty, by the barometer of the Three per Cents., holds us back. How long will the nation submit to make such motives the guide of its actions?

PROFESSOR JOWETT'S SALARY.

THE Church of England runs occasionally no little risk of being injured by the injudicious zeal of its own friends. The position of Professor Jowett at Oxford is by no means a common one. His opinions on the subject of religion are distasteful to the majority of English Churchmen, who regard him as a speculative thinker, occupying the dangerous and slippery half-way ground between faith and scepticism. This, to many people, is one dark side of the picture; but those who disagree the most with Professor Jowett can afford to acknowledge that there is another and a brighter one. He is without a doubt the most unselfish and laborious tutor in the University, and his vigorous efforts in the direction of educational reform deserve the admiration of even his theological opponents. For seven or eight years he has been lecturing to the whole of Oxford on the miserable salary of £40 a year, and gratuitously affording assistance in private to any poor student of the place who likes to avail himself of it. Putting aside theology, he stands, then, before the eyes of a critical University as a Professor without reproach. Nor has the practical effect of so exemplary a discharge of duty been small. The most distinguished Oxford men of the last ten or fifteen years have either been his pupils, or in some way connected with his work. Many a fellow or tutor who is the life and mainstay of some other college, traces back his own energy and self-denial to the stimulus afforded him in younger days by Professor Jowett's example. Disagreeing as we do *in toto* with his theology, we have no hesitation in awarding him this tribute of deserved praise. The question then arises: is Professor Jowett to receive no salary, because his religious tenets are not what might be desired? The Oxford non-residents, swamping by their votes the deliberately recorded judgment of the soberer resident majority—composed of men of all shades of theological opinion—have said that he is to go unpaid. Such a decision, which leaves an uneasy sensation in all generous minds, however far removed from sympathy with the sceptical philosophy of the day, is a serious one, and seems likely to injure the cause which the opponents of Professor Jowett's salary conscientiously desire to serve.

In the first place, expediency alone points to the sure and obvious conclusion that to refuse to pay Professor Jowett the slender annuity which his friends ask, is the way to strengthen and not to weaken his position in the University. Those who were in Oxford during the voting last Tuesday, were not left long in ignorance what a stormy current of feeling is setting in among younger Oxford men against the severe parsimony which will squander thousands upon orthodox incompetency,

and yet refuse two or three hundred well-earned pounds to genius suspected of unsoundness. Professor Pusey only made Professor Jowett more popular by prosecuting him. It will be reserved for Archdeacon Denison and Dr. Cotton to make him immortal by a pertinacious system of underpayment. How can men of common sense fail to see that a tutor of the eminence and singlemindedness of Professor Jowett is not likely to be starved into resignation? At Oxford he will remain, and he will perforce remain Regius Professor, and a crop of theological acrimony and bitterness, to say nothing of reaction, will be the sole result of these abortive efforts to wound a man whom it is impossible to expel. We may surely take a lesson from the theological history of the last fifteen years. Violent schemes for ostracising real or supposed heresy appear to recoil invariably on the heads of their authors. Thus it has been reserved for the leaders of the High Church party within the memory of this generation, by two successive movements, to establish beyond a doubt the legality of the dogmas they attacked. The Bishop of Exeter gave battle to Mr. Gorham. The issue of the fight was happily to root Evangelicalism on a secure and constitutional basis within the garden of the Church. The Bishop of Salisbury followed with a prosecution of the "Essays and Reviews." The result, unwelcome as it is to the majority of Churchmen, has nevertheless been indisputably to legalize the existence of a section of religious thinkers who, up to that time, had been supposed to exist within the Church's pale upon sufferance alone. Those, then, who believe that the interests of the English Church can be forwarded by a series of assaults, which only show that the assaulted position is legally impregnable, ought to have had enough of them by this time. To those, on the other hand, who blindly suppose that the way to defend sound religion at Oxford is to refuse to pay an unsound Greek professor his well-earned stipend, we can only reply that we can imagine no better means of converting Oxford into a furnace of heretical commotion.

Is then the University, it will be said,—the very parterre and nursery of the Church,—to remain indifferent to the vital interests of religion? The answer to the question evidently is that nothing more prejudicial to the interests of religion can be conceived than continual theological battles upon matters which may fairly be dealt with from a secular point of view. The best friends of the Church are not those who plant the Church's flag in an useless and indefensible breach, which it is not the natural business of the Church instinctively to defend. Men who are hasty enough to do so expose themselves to the humiliation not merely of being beaten, but of being beaten on a question that they need not have converted into a crucial one. There are plenty of ways in which Mr. Jowett's unorthodoxy, whatever may be its nature, may be dealt with. Probably his friends are entitled to allege, with some reason, that the late judgment of the Privy Council shelters most of what he has written. We cannot admit this; but it is, nevertheless, a short-sighted policy for those who differ from his opinions to give battle to them on the one battle-field where he has, if not theological soundness, at least justice, generosity, and public opinion upon his side. Sooner or later, the Greek chair must be endowed by the Government, if not by the University; and the greater the contest now, the greater will seem the defeat hereafter. But there is another objection to the wisdom of the course pursued by the antagonists of the statute. All this is an arbitrary way of injuring a theological opponent's pocket without giving him any legal appeal or remedy. The law courts are open to those who still wish to prosecute Professor Jowett, though the absurd plan of converting a University tribunal for the recovery of small debts into an Oxford Court of Arches broke down at the outset. So long, however, as he is not accused in the ordinary and legitimate way, Professor Jowett has a right to insist that his views may be dangerous, but that they are certainly not illegal. If Dr. Cotton and his friends reply that it is their duty to make war upon such views all the more because they are not illegal but dangerous only, the answer is—let the warfare, then, be either one of controversy or of personal influence. Were it a question of raising Professor Jowett to a post of dignity and power, Dr. Cotton would be quite right in attempting to put obstacles in the way of Professor Jowett's advancement, just as under converse circumstances we should not attempt to controvert Professor Jowett's right to try to keep Dr. Cotton from high office. All members of the University of Oxford act within their sphere of duty when they use honourable means to promote what they believe to be the interests of the place as a place of religion and learning. But it does not seem to be a question of Professor Jowett's advancement. The Crown has appointed him. The responsibility

did not lie with the University. If his salary is earned by secular work with which theology has nothing to do, we cannot see either the justice or the wisdom of declining to let him have it. Such a step is a half-measure, and one that, on the first blush of it, seems illogical. Assuming that Professor Jowett is a heretic, let him be prosecuted. If he is not a heretic but unstable only in matters of faith let him be refuted, or his influence opposed. But let him not be treated upon a system, which—however natural it is that Dr. Cotton and Archdeacon Denison should honestly adopt it—is really persecution.

The circular sent round by the leading antagonists of the endowment of the chair will not conclude the discussion in the eyes of moderate Churchmen. Virtually to employ the recent Privy Council decision as a means for stirring up excitement against an individual, seems but a feeble appreciation of the way in which the religious difficulties of the day are to be met. These are not the arms with which scepticism is to be fought. Nor is this bare justice. The right of Mr. Jowett to his salary cannot certainly be impaired by the fact that a legal judgment has recently been pronounced which seems, unfortunately, to legitimatise his views. A lawyer would laugh at the argument. Yet we are sorry to say it has been widely used by the best and most scrupulous of men. But the strangest reason of all is the reason that Professor Jowett, if he pleases, may exact fees from his pupils, and therefore can have no claim on the University. Apparently, Dr. Cotton thinks there is no harm in an undergraduate paying an heretical tutor, though there would be the greatest sin in paying him from the University fund. But apart from its inconsequence, the train of argument is the last one to tell with the non-academical public. If Professor Jowett will not accept, indirectly, from his pupils the salary which the University chooses directly to deny him—more honour to Professor Jowett. Other professors take fees from both University and students; and we are bound to admit give both students and University very much less for the money. Under all the circumstances, it was highly creditable both to Dr. Pusey, to Sir W. Heathcote, and to Mr. Keble that they should have come at last to the conclusion that such a situation was a mistake. It is, however, a curious illustration of the pertinacity with which this opposition to Mr. Jowett has been conducted, that on Tuesday last Dr. Pusey was only followed by a fragment of his own party. Calm reflection will, perhaps, before long convince the rest that these three gentlemen—whose zeal for the Church's welfare cannot be suspected—have taken, in this instance, the wise and the generous view. Among the Oxford residents many men of undoubted orthodoxy are at one upon the point. Many leading High Churchmen and Evangelicals throughout the country agree with them. For ourselves—differing as we necessarily do both from Dr. Pusey and Mr. Jowett—we cannot but regret, for the sake of the peace and prosperity of the University, that a door is left open for future bitterness which might have been quietly and honourably closed.

THE REVISED EDUCATION CODE.

It is a wise provision of the English Constitution which separates the legislative from the executive functions, and farther provides that the Executive Administration shall be in harmony with the feelings of the country, by requiring that all Ministers of the Crown shall have the confidence of the people in the person of their representatives in Parliament. The principle on which this provision rests has been occasionally disregarded in practice, but never, we believe, without injurious results. Many years ago the Legislature passed a measure, founded in the main on sound principles, for the amendment of the laws relating to the relief of the poor. But in so doing they practically delegated large legislative powers to what ought to have been only an executive department—viz., to the Board of Commissioners at Somerset House. The consequence was that the great benefits which the measure did confer were marred, and the far larger ones which it might have conferred were prevented, by bickerings and dissatisfactions which arose almost entirely out of orders made by the Commissioners and not out of any direct provisions of the Act of Parliament. The Home Secretary again has been allowed, under the plea of advising the Crown in the exercise of its pardoning power, to usurp legislative functions, in revising punishments of criminals which have been appointed by law and duly ordered, after conviction, by the sentence of the judges of the land. The whole country has lately rung with the evil consequences which have followed upon this abuse.

But the most remarkable instance of a departure in this respect from the wise principles of the Constitution has been in the important matter of the education of the people. A system was gradually allowed to spring up under which a mere Committee of the Privy Council was enabled, with only the restriction of a very shadowy Ministerial responsibility, to arrogate and exercise an absolute power of legislation as well as of administration with respect to the whole subject of the elementary instruction of the people. And as if this were not enough, on the formation of the present Government a gentleman was appointed to the office of Vice-President of the Privy Council (that is to say, of Minister of Education, wielding almost the whole power of the State in the matter), whose opinions were well known not to be in sympathy either with the general principles which Parliament had sanctioned, or with the feelings of those practically engaged in the education of the people. Parliament and the country had determined, as with one voice, that the education of the poor, assisted by the State, should be based on religion. Mr. Lowe was known to desire a system of mere secular instruction. Parliament and the country had resolved that education should be given through the action of the different religious denominations, the rôle of the State being confined to assistance, inspection, and suggestion. Mr. Lowe was known to prefer a system in which the State should take the whole matter into its own hands, as in Prussia and the United States of America. And in this case, as in the others which we have mentioned, the consequences of departure from true constitutional principles have been full of evil. In the first instance a system was gradually consolidated under the legislation of the Privy Council, so expensive and yet so partial in its operation, and so far from successful in spreading among all the classes of elementary schools, lower as well as higher, suitable and efficient instruction, that some change in it became absolute necessary. But it was endeavoured to effect this change not by such wise and moderate and gradual amendments as could have been carried through Parliament, but by the sudden issue of a revised code so revolutionary, *doctrinaire*, and unpractical in its character, as to throw the whole country into a state of excitement, and to superinduce both consternation and hostility on the part of all who were practically engaged in the work of education. Parliament interfered, resuming in some degree its legitimate functions. In order to escape inevitable and crushing defeat, Mr. Lowe was obliged to accept a compromise which yielded almost all that Mr. Walpole, who on this question worthily led the opposition to the Government scheme, had asked for. It was then thought that the question had been set at rest. The managers, and much more the masters and mistresses of schools, felt indeed that some hardship had been imposed upon them, but they resolutely set their shoulders to the wheel to carry out the new plans to the best of their ability.

We believe that if the compromise arrived at had been honestly kept, and if the Privy Council had abstained from farther legislation, matters would soon have righted themselves, and the new code become a real benefit. But such has not been the case. First, Mr. Lowe adopted a course of action which seemed designed to prevent the real facts of the case from being known, by refusing, under the plea of maintaining the discipline of the department, to publish without reserve, as had always been done before, the reports of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools. He would only publish such as met with his approbation—men naturally said only such as supported his own views. Then the whole tone of the correspondence of the Committee of the Privy Council with the managers of schools, became such as to make the latter feel that they had no longer to do with a central authority recognising and valuing their efforts and wishing to assist them, but rather with a hostile power, bent on cutting down to the lowest point the pecuniary aid which they had a right to expect. And at last a step was taken, which seems to us to have been a gross breach of the compromise acceded to on the settlement of the revised code, an undue invasion of the legislative authority of Parliament, and in itself very ill advised. One of the clauses of the revised code had provided that the grant from Government might, in certain specified cases, be diminished by certain proportions. On the 19th of May last a minute was made by the Privy Council, farther reducing such grants by the whole amount of any endowment which they might possess. This was a measure affecting no less than 4,678 schools attached to the Church of England, and having for its aim to deprive them of nearly £30,000 a year. It was enacted notwithstanding other provisions of the revised code, which sufficiently guarded against any abuse of endowments and against endowed schools receiving any unnecessary share

of the Parliamentary grant. For by them it had been already provided that no grant should be made to a school whose endowment exceeded 30s. per head on the number of scholars in ordinary attendance, and that no school should receive from that source more than it obtained from school fees and local subscriptions. This very important change in the condition of Government aid to schools was not formally proposed and sanctioned by the Legislature, but it was sought to be effected by a few words dexterously, we will not say clandestinely, introduced into a clause of the Education Code, and by the sole authority of the Committee of Privy Council. We are not now arguing on the abstract wisdom or the contrary of the regulation which was intended. No doubt, *à priori*, if there be two schools of which one has an endowment and the other not, it is only fair that the endowed one should receive so much the less from the State. But the case was that nearly five thousand schools had been built, adapted, or established on the faith of receiving certain Government assistance, and their expectation of it was taken away with one stroke of the pen. It was, farther, that a deliberate and well-considered compromise having been made on the subject of education, an attempt was made to change its terms within a very short time after the arrangement, and before the operation of the new system had any fair chance of being tested. And, yet more, that regulations of a character which belonged to the Legislature only to decide were sought to be made by the arbitrary order of a new committee of an executive department. On all these grounds, we consider the attempt of Mr. Lowe and his colleagues worthy of the gravest condemnation. Such a condemnation it has received. We can hardly conceive a more humiliating position than that in which the Government was placed in being obliged to consent without a division to the adoption of Mr. Adderley's resolution, which, disguise it as they may, was virtually one of deserved censure. We trust that its effect will be to hinder for some time to come any further tampering with the condition of the great educational compromise of 1862. But we earnestly hope that the House of Commons will go further still, and by adopting the 2nd resolution, which Mr. Adderley was prevented from moving by a point of form, will make it impossible for any Minister hereafter to make any important change in the conduct of national education without the *previous* sanction of the Legislature. Difficulties have arisen out of a departure from sound constitutional principles; a return to right principles will, we believe, prevent a recurrence of those difficulties. We only add that one sound principle is that every Minister should have the confidence of Parliament and the country. We are convinced that as a Minister of Education Mr. Lowe does not possess the confidence of either. He is a man of great ability, and there are offices in which he might do the State good service and strengthen the Ministry of which he is a member. In his present position he is an angular man in a round hole, and we fear that a general election would show him to be in the office which he now holds an element of weakness in the generally and deservedly popular Ministry of Lord Palmerston.

MR. GLADSTONE AND THE INSURANCE OFFICES

WHEN, on the 11th of February, the Government Annuities Bill was introduced into the House of Commons, the imagination of man could not conceive that in that modest little measure, entitling the Government to grant insurances for sums not exceeding £100, lay a force that was to explode in the tremendous broadside which astonished the House on Monday last. Awkward disclosures had, indeed, from time to time, made it known that agents were at work in the manipulation of insurance offices, which contemplated any interests but those of the policy holders; and we were by similar means informed that there was something rotten in the state of too many friendly societies—sometimes traceable to mismanagement, sometimes to fraud. We ourselves had endeavoured to open the eyes of the world to that particular form of chicanery which is known under the name of amalgamation, and in some articles we devoted to the subject several months ago, we showed how, when two or three "promoters" are gathered together, the Gushing Benevolence Office merges into the Friend of Man Society, for no other object than to enable the latter to keep its head some few years longer above water, and to enrich the promoters with a very handsome share of the spoil. But it was reserved for Mr. Gladstone's master-hand to present upon one canvas a picture of the insecurity of a system which has won the confidence of immense numbers of the community, which is yearly enlarging the operations of established offices and calling new ones into existence, with

the certainty that at least very many of these institutions will come to an end in the Court of Chancery. What a story is told in the brief statement, that between 1844 and 1862, inclusive, 596 companies have been projected, 276 founded, 259 ceased to exist, 12 amalgamated, while 161 have transferred their business, and 57 been wound up in Chancery! What a story of abused confidence, of plundered savings, of impoverished old age, lies beneath these figures! What are we to think of the honesty of those intermediate agents who go between two offices, saying, "Oh, you had better amalgamate," when we find the Chancellor of the Exchequer speaking of many of these amalgamations as worse than wholesale robbery, and of the men who transact them as more fitted to stand in the inside of a dock or in gaol than the rogue who, perhaps, has been a dozen times convicted. Nor is this language unjust or exaggerated. Men intimate with the working of the insurance system know that the "intermediate agents" buy shares in offices for the express purpose of effecting their amalgamation with some other; pocketing a handsome fee, not of hundreds, but thousands of pounds as the reward of their dishonest services. Amalgamation is the trade on which they fatten, as it is the means by which a hopeless office props itself up for a time, but only for a time. It is a common belief, encouraged by the touters for insurance offices, that a policy is always safe, because, if the office that grants it fails, another will take it. So it will, and gladly. No office will refuse an accession of business, which is an immediate accession of wealth. But read the result in the figures we have quoted: in the 259 offices which have ceased to exist, in the 161 which have transferred their policies, and in the 57 which have been wound up in Chancery, all within the space of nineteen years.

But when we have gone through Mr. Gladstone's lucid exposure of the insurance system, from the large and safe offices to the minor and unsafe; when we have weighed all the arguments with which he supports the Government Annuities Bill, and have admitted that there are evils at work which cannot be allowed to have their fling any longer, we feel that his case against the insurance system is in vast disproportion to the remedy he proposes. It is certain that some insurance offices are not sound—are, in fact, in a state of progress towards dissolution. It is equally certain that their policyholders, whose premiums maintain them, have no power to control their management, or to resist the nefarious practice of amalgamation. Neither can it be doubted that the accounts furnished by the societies—and the older offices are exempt from the obligation of publishing any—are a totally inadequate guide as to their soundness or unsoundness. We find, again, with regard to the minor offices, an army of agents employed throughout the country, who go from house to house explaining the benefits of insurance, and the pre-eminent claims of their own office—men selected for their powers of persuasion, who receive for the reward of their labours 25 per cent. on the premiums paid; and we are not surprised, with this indication before us, to learn that, in many cases, the working expenses far exceed the assets of the society, and that the latter are often less than the annual income. The one fact at least partly explains the other. Of course, in the early years of these societies, all is well. Insurance business, unlike ordinary business, begins not with outlay but with profits. The liabilities lie in the future; and so far in the future that the premiums are in excess of the death claims for a period of thirty-seven years. Except in cases of gross mismanagement, that period must elapse before the soundness of the society can be tested. Here is a wide field for improvident management and for swindling amalgamations. For years the managers are practically irresponsible. Funds are yearly, quarterly, or weekly flowing in upon them; and if a policy-holder, who has contrived to get a glimpse behind the scenes, is disposed to call them to account, he is told that he has no claim "until he dies"—which is true. Then there is the gross injustice, for it is nothing less, in some of the societies which address the working classes, that disputed claims are to be settled by arbitration in London, and that policies will be forfeited if the payments are not kept up. We grant the iniquity of these rules. We can easily guess the working of the first, when we reflect how impossible and profitless it must be for the widow or orphans of a Liverpool artisan to support the expense of a journey to London and the litigation before an arbitrator. We see the working of the second rule in the fact that in the Friend-in-Need Society out of 86,000 policies made in five years 18,000 lapsed—that is, were forfeited—through an intermission of payments for a few weeks; while in the Royal Liver Society 70,000 lapsed out of 535,000. If, then, we regard the insurance system, from the highest to the lowest offices—from those long-established ones which are not bound to make any public statement of their accounts, to those whose statements are of no value

whatever; if from these we turn to those friendly societies whose rules are so incompatible with justice that men who have subscribed for ten, twenty, thirty years may lose the benefit of all they have paid by a few weeks' intermission of their payments,—we have before us a general insecurity of the whole system, for which Mr. Gladstone's remedy is utterly inadequate. It offers relief only to holders of policies not exceeding £100. All who insure above that amount he leaves to the mercy of managers, touters, and the "intermediate agents" of amalgamations. He has proved too much. His own argument overwhelms him.

But his admissions are equally fatal. "I am exceedingly anxious," he says, "to have it understood that I am not making a general assault on friendly societies. Nothing is more satisfactory or more congenial; nothing more harmonious with the best English ideas than to see men of the labouring class associating together with the view of self-government for the purpose of providing against the contingencies of old age and sickness; and on societies of such a sacred character I would not lay a finger." If this means anything, it means that there are friendly societies which fairly, honestly, and effectively work out their object and confer the benefits they promise. How can we reconcile this with the statement he made towards the close of his speech:—"I am aware of no manner in which the compulsory regulation of these societies can be undertaken by Parliament." Is it impossible to examine the method on which the societies in which he places confidence conduct their business, and to make that method compulsory upon all? Let us consider how deeply these societies have left their mark in our social system. They number amongst their members a million and a half of the people, besides several hundred thousands attached to other similar societies. Mr. Gladstone eloquently expresses the good effect they have had in combining the working classes in the noblest duties of citizenship—self-government and mutual help. He proposes to destroy all this; to break up these great associations, and to teach their members the worst of all lessons—dependence on the Government. But his case strikes at the root of the whole insurance system. From first to last, he tells us, it is bad; not that there are not sound offices in which the middle and higher classes can insure with perfect confidence, but that this security proceeds from the individual office, and is wholly beyond the supervision and control of the public. Be it so. No doubt it is so. But why display this monster evil before our eyes without offering us a remedy? Will he pretend that, with respect to amalgamations, it is impossible for the Legislature to defeat the dishonesty of those "intermediate agents," whose acts, he assures us, far more entitle them to stand in the felon's dock than many a man who has been a dozen times convicted? If offices which have been established for years are in a state of certain progress to insolvency, will any one who can make out a balance-sheet believe that it is beyond the power of legislative wisdom to apply to them such a test as shall reveal their position? Mr. Gladstone cannot have contemplated such a retort upon his arguments. The "mild measure of gradual operation" which he has considerably prepared, lest a sudden alarm should be spread throughout the members of the friendly societies, has been explained in a speech which has sent alarm into every home which looks to the insurance of its head for support in the hour of bereavement. But Mr. Gladstone, who feels that the Government cannot, with regard to the working classes, take the responsibility of saying, "we will look on but will do nothing," is quite prepared to take that responsibility with regard to all the rest of the community, though nothing can be easier than to compel every insurance-office to provide periodically accounts in such a shape as any experienced actuary—and none can be more competent than the Government actuary, Mr. Finlaison—could prescribe, with the certainty of disclosing its true position.

We do not write in a spirit of hostility to the Government bill. We believe it to be a mistake, and that all the good it proposes can be better accomplished by existing institutions, without disturbing the moral and social advantages they have conferred on the working classes, and, through them, on the State, and without involving the evil which this bill would create, of teaching the people to look to the Government instead of to themselves for relief in their difficulties. But it is a great gain—a gain of inestimable value—that the proposal of this measure has drawn from Mr. Gladstone the searching exposure he has made of the helplessness of policy-holders, and the frauds and mismanagement of too many insurance companies. With that exposure he cannot stop. The case he has made out recoils upon himself. It shows that the Executive and the Legislature have a duty to perform from which they must not shrink. The policy-holder is power-

less to control the funds which have come out of his pocket, and to which he looks for payment of the sum he has bargained for. He is powerless to prevent dishonest amalgamations. They must give him power. They are at least bound to exact from insurance companies periodically such an intelligible statement of accounts as will guide him to the doors of those offices which are sound, and warn him away from those which are rotten.

ADMIRALTY MISMANAGEMENT.

THE period for discussing the Navy Estimates has once more come round, and with it the annual disquisition on the Admiralty, and exposure of its shortcomings. At this season, as a matter of course, we expect to hear that no administrative body ever before existed so faulty in organization, and so incompetent and inefficient in the conduct of its affairs. Strange to say, however, we expect equally as a matter of course that no practical result is to follow the complaints so freely indulged in. Is then the display, as far as the hearts of the actors are concerned, as formal as a scene at the theatre, which begins and ends in empty sounds? Far from this being the case, the speakers are sincere in their accusations, and the audience evidently share their convictions. In fact, it may be doubted whether the House can produce such a *lusus naturæ* as a believer in the Admiralty, even including the members of this body who have seats on its benches. The subject, also, is one of surpassing magnitude and importance, involving the comfort and lives of the gallant seamen who man our fleets, the honour of our flag, and the safety of the nation. Even regarded from its lowest point of view—as a financial question—the wasteful or economic disbursement of eleven millions claims all the care, intelligence, and scrutiny that can be brought to bear upon it. What, then, is the explanation of this inaction which is content with fault-finding, instead of actively taking steps to remodel an institution which all agree to be ill-adapted to the wants of the present day? The answer to this question we believe to be the absence of clear and definite ideas as to the nature of the remedy. We have ourselves small respect for those who indulge in vague grumbling and complaints without being prepared to suggest any improvement on the arrangements whose efficiency they assail, and we shall not imitate their example. Clearly, it would be a great saving of the time of legislative bodies if it were made imperative that no one should assume the task of denouncing a system until he was prepared to propose a substitute, and show how and why it would prove a better mode of conducting the business than the plan he desired to supersede.

The failings of the Admiralty may be classed under two heads—first, want of intelligence, producing blunders and causing delay in initiating improvements in ships' guns and other material, thus allowing our rivals to get in advance of us; secondly, wasting the resources of the country by not obtaining an adequate return for the money expended. Now, whatever differences of opinion may prevail as to what ought to be the strength of the navy, none can exist as to the desirability of not paying extravagantly for what we actually maintain, and accordingly the necessity of economy has been enforced for years past by a chorus of voices re-echoed by the Government. Sorry we are to say the result has been *nil*, the slight reduction in the navy estimates for the present year having been obtained by a corresponding reduction in men and material—an achievement it certainly did not require the much talked of investigations of the Radical member for Halifax to effect. Nor need we wonder at this barren result when the principle on which our rulers aim at economy in public matters seems almost entirely restricted to questions of account, and expends what little vitality it possesses upon revising systems of book-keeping. Now what should we expect would be the fate of a public company or private firm whose contracts to purchase were all made by servants having no pecuniary interest in keeping down the prices without being subjected to supervision; or what opinion should we form of the wisdom and common sense of a housekeeper bent on retrenchment who did not test the accuracy of his tradesmen's bills. In short, the English nation presents the spectacle of an old, fatuous country gentleman, groaning under the weight of mortgages and current outgoings, lamenting that he will not be able to send his younger sons to the university or continue the music lessons of his daughters, and that only a very limited amount of drainage can be executed this year, whilst the additions to his house and the new green-house must be indefinitely postponed, while at the same time, through negligence and *insouciance*, he is paying double the market price for a large proportion of the commodities he consumes.

The French Ministry of Marine are giving £50 per horse-power for their marine engines. Machinery is notoriously cheaper in England than in France, yet the English Admiralty are paying £65 per horse-power, and were till quite recently paying £80, and, if report speaks truly, the idea of that reduction did not originate within the department. Again, it is a matter of notoriety that for many years past the Admiralty have been paying considerably more than double the market price for anchors; paying, in fact, the contract price of 1841, although, from the introduction of Nasmyth's steam-hammer and other improvements, the price of large forgings has diminished since that date 60 per cent. Nor is this the extent of the evil, for it is generally believed that to avoid disturbing this ancient arrangement, the navy, since 1853, has had to put up with an inferior anchor. Eleven years ago a committee of distinguished naval officers and merchant ship-owners appointed by the Admiralty to investigate the merits of various anchors, after a long course of experiments decided that of seven anchors submitted to them the service or Admiralty anchor was the worst. The mercantile marine availed themselves of the knowledge thus obtained by almost universally adopting the anchor which stood first on the list in point of merit; but the country, which defrayed the cost of these experiments, has not been allowed to benefit by them except in the case of the Queen's yacht. For the rest of the navy the retention of the worst anchor of the seven, at a cost exceeding three times the price of the best, has been found possible! Now it appears to us that a very simple and efficient mode of preventing such glaring abuses is within our reach. Every year let some competent man of business of well known character and integrity, totally unconnected with Government contracts or official life, be appointed to scrutinize the prices charged for all articles supplied to the Admiralty, and furnish a report to be printed and laid before Parliament.

Another source of wasteful expenditure is the defective organization of labour in the dockyards. The Committee on Dockyards in 1859 reported that the same class of ship which cost in her Majesty's yards £8. 13s. per ton for labour was built in private yards for £2. 12s. per ton. The Royal Commission on Dockyards in 1861 reported as follows:—"We regret to state that in our opinion the control and management of the Dockyards are inefficient, and that the inefficiency may be attributed to the following causes: first, the constitution of the Board of Admiralty; secondly, the defective organization of the subordinate departments; thirdly, the want of clear and well-defined responsibility; and fourthly, the absence of any means, both now and in times past, of effectively checking expenditure, from the want of accurate accounts." The fourth evil appears to be the only one the Government have seriously attempted to grapple with, and, apparently, we shall long wait in vain before we receive any such practical and business-like announcement as the following:—"The ships which formerly cost in her Majesty's dockyards £8. 13s. per ton for labour—the cost in private yards being £2. 12s.—are now built in her Majesty's yards for the latter sum." The first want of the dockyards is not an accountant, but some master-mind capable of grasping all the details required for the efficient organization of labour, and versed in all those modes of economising it practised in the best private establishments at the present day.

Of all the defects in the Board of Admiralty none is, perhaps, more detrimental to the public service, or more costly to the country, than the absence of any provision for the discharge of one of the most important and, in an intellectual point of view, the highest of its functions, viz., the duty of deciding on those changes in the construction and equipment of our ships which the advance of knowledge and the progress of the arts and sciences render not only desirable but imperative if we would not have our naval superiority wrested from us. This duty should be delegated to the most intelligent naval officer we possess, with an adequate staff, constituting a department by itself. He should have power to take the opinions of eminent scientific men at his discretion, and a liberal allowance of money for experiments. Such a task never can be satisfactorily performed whilst, as has hitherto been the practice, it is most unreasonably thrown upon executive officials already overburdened with office business; and to hold them responsible for the result under such circumstances is simply absurd and unjust. The executive man—the man of order and details, who finds full scope for his powers in copying—in the monotonous reproduction of existing things admirable as a chief of department the details of which are stationary—is often incompetent if called upon to deviate from the beaten track, and found a new system. On the other hand the man whose imagination, unweighted and untrammelled by red tape, can body forth

things and arrangements existing yet but as ideas, appreciate their probable actions and results, and devise such experiments as shall be decisive as to their value, seldom possesses great talent and aptitude for mere business routine.

The result of tacking together duties requiring such essentially different qualifications may be seen in our present position. We have twenty armour-clad vessels the designs of which to competent eyes were always profoundly absurd. The narrowly-escaped catastrophe of the *Royal Consort* shows but too correctly what may be expected from them and what will be their ultimate fate. In six months' cruising they will pitch and strain themselves to pieces should they be able to keep at sea so long without drowning their crews, whilst from their instability of gun-platform they will never be fit to fight an action in a fresh breeze. The weight of broadside in the *Warrior*, the largest man-of-war we have ever equipped and sent to sea, is less than half the weight of the broadside of the *Gloire*, a vessel one-third smaller. We have just finished building the three largest men-of-war ever designed, the *Achilles*, the *Minotaur*, and the *Agincourt*, at a cost of £400,000 each, with armour immeasurably inferior to that of the *Warrior*, though costing much more; the experiment which demonstrated this inferiority not having been made as a preliminary before commencing the ships, but when they were half-finished, and it was too late to profit by the information it afforded.

Such facts as these are surely sufficient to deserve attention. On whichever side we turn our eyes, we are met by evidence of the incompetence of the Admiralty, a vast expenditure dissipated in blundering, and the national honour and safety insecure,—a state of things, in short, which, should war suddenly burst upon us, might leave its traces on the national annals in letters of blood and narratives of disaster and disgrace. Shall we then trust to the chapter of accidents, or shall we, like rational beings, with foresight and deliberation, seriously set ourselves to the task of placing the department intrusted with interests so momentous in harmony with the requirements of the era by adapting it to the vast changes and widely different order of things which have grown up since its origin?

SIR ROWLAND HILL AND POST-OFFICE REFORM.

THE public have heard with universal regret that Sir Rowland Hill's health has been so shattered by his protracted and self-sacrificing labours, that he has resigned the appointment of Secretary to the General Post-office. Six months ago his medical advisers enjoined rest and change of air and scene. The Postmaster-General gave him six months' leave of absence, and it was hoped that he might then be enabled to resume the duties which he performed with so much pleasure to himself and advantage to the community. But this hope has proved fallacious. Sir Rowland Hill's health, we are concerned to state, is completely shattered. His condition, happily, is not dangerous, but to resume his labours at the Post-office would be to risk his life, and he has wisely yielded to the advice of his physicians and the warnings of his malady. To a man of Sir R. Hill's active intellect and passion for work, the sentence that has gone out against him, to cease from future official labour, must have been bitter and painful in no ordinary degree. His intellectual powers are not only unimpaired, but in their fullest vigour and maturity. The sword has worn out its scabbard. His consolation will be twofold. He will watch the growing development of the mighty system he has created; and he will be cheered in his hours of sickness by the national recognition of his services in originating and bringing into successful operation the scheme of penny postage.

It is a trite saying, but a true one, that the men who grow up in the midst of great social and political changes are unable to appreciate the full value and significance of the events in which they take part. No person can possibly measure the unexampled benefits which have resulted to England and to the whole civilized world from the system of penny postage. Mere figures convey no definite idea of the stimulus to trade and commerce, the impulse to education, and the quickening and purifying influences in our social and domestic life which are traceable to this source. Yet the moment has arrived when a broad and general comparison between the new system and the old ought to be recorded in justice to Sir R. Hill. His pamphlet on "Post Office Reform" was written in 1836. During the twenty previous years—from 1815 to 1835—there had been no increase whatever in the Post-office revenue. The number of letters was also stationary. In the first year of penny postage the letters more than doubled. Comparing the year 1863 with 1838 (the last complete year under the old

system), the number of chargeable letters has risen from *seventy-six millions to six hundred and forty-two millions!* Sir R. Hill, before the change, held out the expectation that the number of letters would increase five-fold. They have increased, not five-fold, but nearly eight-and-a-half-fold. Sir R. Hill and the postal reformers declared that the Post-office had been too much regarded as a source of public revenue, and they were by no means disconcerted, therefore, when the Post-office revenue exhibited a large falling-off—about £1,000,000 gross, and still more in net revenue. The revenue, however, whether gross or net, has since then rapidly advanced. It has now not only recovered its original amount, but has risen—the gross revenue from £2,346,000 to about £3,870,000, and the net revenue from £1,660,000 to about £1,790,000. Thus the gross revenue, instead of remaining the same, has increased by about £1,500,000; while the net revenue, instead of falling £300,000, has risen more than £100,000, after defraying the salaries, &c., of a vastly increased establishment. The fiscal loss during the interval has, no doubt, been considerable; but against this must be set off the indirect benefit to the general revenue of the country from the increased facilities afforded to commercial transactions. We are therefore inclined to believe that, all things considered, the vast benefit of cheap, rapid, and extended postal communication has been obtained, even as regards the past, without fiscal loss. For the future there must be a large and ever-increasing gain.

The more important organic improvements effected by Sir R. Hill are fourteen in number.

1. A large reduction in inland, foreign, and colonial rates of postage. Letters may now be sent from Shetland to the Channel Islands for one-fourth the rate charged before 1839 for a letter sent from one town to another eight miles distant. For the rate charged for this slight distance—fourpence—a letter may be sent to any part of France, and even to Algeria. The sum formerly paid on a letter from London to Reading will now cover the charge of a letter to any part of Canada, India, or Australia.

2. The reduction of rates is not to be measured by the diminution in the postage of a single letter. The adoption of charge by weight, by abolishing the charge for mere enclosures, is a great saving of trouble and expense to the public.

3. The universal prepayment of correspondence, and that by means of stamps.

4. A wonderful simplification of the mechanism and accounts of the department, both in town and country.

5. The book post, whereby all printed and much MS. matter is conveyed at low rates. It is impossible to over-estimate the benefit of this reform to publishers, authors, and the reading public. Its modified extension to our colonies and to many foreign countries is also a subject of congratulation.

6. Increased security by the system of letter registration, and temptation to letter-carriers and sorters diminished by making registration of letters containing coin compulsory.

7. A reduction to about one-third in the cost—including postage—of money-orders, and the development of that valuable system, so that the annual amount transmitted has risen from £313,000 to £16,494,000; that is, fifty-two fold!

8. More frequent and more rapid postal communication, by accelerated trains and day as well as night-mails, between London and the larger provincial towns, and also between one provincial town and another.

9. Extension of the rural distribution, whereby thousands of towns and villages which were formerly isolated, and millions of persons who were debarred from postal communication, are now included within the postal system, and brought into swift and regular intercourse with each other and with the rest of the world.

10. Extension of free deliveries. Before penny postage many considerable places and portions of all the larger towns had no delivery at all, or else a delivery on condition of an extra charge.

11. Increased facilities for the transmission of foreign and colonial correspondence, by new conventions with foreign countries and the colonies, by a more skilful arrangement of the packet service, by sorting letters on board vessels, &c.

12. A more prompt despatch of letters when posted, and a more prompt delivery on arrival.

13. The division of the metropolis into ten postal districts, by which and other measures communication within the twelve mile circle has been greatly facilitated, and the most important delivery of the day has been, generally speaking, accelerated as much as two hours.

14. An improvement in the condition of the Post-office employés. Their labours, especially on the Sunday, have been

very generally reduced, their salaries increased, their chances of promotion augmented, and other important advantages afforded them. The old system of patronage has gradually given way to the plan of selecting the most efficient and most energetic servants for promotion, and an incalculable benefit has thus been conferred on the industrious and deserving.

We might add to the collateral benefits of penny postage the organization of the new system of savings banks, which are developing habits of order, sobriety, and frugality among the labouring classes.

Parliament has done much by Government grants to promote education in the United Kingdom. Yet it may be doubted whether a penny postage has not given a greater stimulus to education than all the Parliamentary grants put together. By enabling relatives and friends to maintain family and social intercourse, it has offered the strongest inducements to the rising generation to acquire at least the rudiments of education, and to practise them when once obtained.

Lastly, the man whose genius devised our reformed postal system, with all its incalculable commercial, educational, and social benefits, has had the signal gratification of seeing it adopted, in a greater or less degree, by the whole civilized world. We believe that the system of penny postage is now adopted in all the European states and throughout North America.

There is no indisposition in any quarter at present to depreciate the splendid services of Sir Rowland Hill. But his recompense has as yet been altogether disproportioned to his labours and his genius. He gave many years of anxious and arduous toil to the inception and working out of the plan of penny postage. The obstacles, both public and private, which he had to surmount were stupendous. At last the Melbourne Government gave him a subordinate post in the Treasury. The Derby Government turned him adrift altogether. He was afterwards placed in the Post-office as Secretary to the Postmaster-General; but the vexations and obstacles against which he had to contend were by no means at an end. The full salary of the office he has resigned is only £2,000, while the pension allowed to him by the superannuation rules of the Civil Service will be something under £600 a year! Of course the rules which regulate the superannuation of civil servants were never meant to apply to cases like his. A world-wide stigma would attach to the nation which rewarded services so transcendent with a beggarly pension of £600 a year. The only question, we trust, is whether the Legislature shall secure him by Act of Parliament his full salary of £2,000 a year, or whether, considering Sir Rowland Hill's age (69), and the shattered and precarious state of his health, it would not be still better to vote him one lump sum, on a scale in some degree commensurate with his services. Harrison received £20,000 from the House of Commons for his chronometer which determined the longitude. There is another precedent still more to the purpose in the Post-office itself. Parliament gave a pension of £3,000 a year for life to General Palmer, who originated the system of mail-coaches, and it also voted him a special grant of £50,000. No friend of Sir Rowland Hill's need contend that this was an extravagant reward for a limited yet important service. But the great postal revolution of which he was the author, his signal administrative skill and faculty for organization, and his incessant labours for a quarter of a century, place him, as a public servant, upon an infinitely higher pedestal than General Palmer, and he ought to be crowned with at least an equal recompense.

We are glad to observe that the Postmaster-General, Lord Stanley of Alderley, in his place in the House of Lords on Tuesday, bore generous testimony to the unexampled benefits, commercial and social, conferred upon his countrymen by Sir Rowland Hill. Lord Stanley of Alderley expressed his opinion that the establishment of the penny postal system was not only one of the greatest improvements of the present age, but had perhaps conferred more benefit upon mankind than any other invention. Birmingham has gracefully taken the lead in doing honour to Sir Rowland Hill, who spent his early life in that town. The men of Birmingham, in public meeting assembled, have determined to erect a statue to his honour, and are signing a petition to the House of Commons in favour of a fitting national grant. If Sir Rowland Hill were the member of some great aristocratic house, his "order" would be justly proud of him, and his family would receive from the State a substantial if not splendid reward. Let the British public remember that Sir Rowland Hill is a "man of the people;" that the middle and lower classes have pre-eminently benefited by his genius; and that it is their duty to strengthen the hands of the Government in voting a fitting gift from a great nation to one who has ennobled the name of Englishmen throughout the globe.

JUSTICE AND MERCY.

THE passionate appeal made by the unfortunate criminal Hall, from the justice of man to the justice of Heaven, has met with a response in the hearts of a great many who feel how immense was the provocation inflicted on him by his victim. There are cases in which it is difficult to make the ordinary rules of social life and of our moral sense agree. A man is not justified in murdering his wife because she tortures him by committing adultery with a vagabond on the second night of her married life. But the crime of the murderer Hall assumes a different aspect according as we look at it from the different points of view, of law or of human nature. The law, indeed, never can relax its stern definitions to suit the hardship of a peculiar instance. Murder is murder, and deliberate killing never can be manslaughter; and judged by this unbending standard, Hall has forfeited his life to society, which intrusts to no injured man the right of deliberately avenging himself. But though the law cannot 'bate its breath, or soften down its clear conception of the meaning of crime, the society for whose protection the law is made may well be justified in remitting the punishment. There can be no doubt at all but that Hall was justly sentenced; it is a different question altogether whether this is not a fitting opportunity for the mercy of the Crown.

That a crime of so deadly a character was committed under the influence of passion is evidently an insufficient reason for sparing the guilty. All crime is committed under the influence of passion, or else from a dominant motive which, drowning the suggestions of reason, speaks almost as loudly as passion itself. The whole object of law is to give by its sanction such a warning of future punishment as may overwhelm all guilty desire or intent. The negative injunction, "Thou shalt not commit murder," is equivalent to the positive command, "Thou shalt control the passion which if uncontrolled becomes murderous." When we consider that it is for the paramount interests of society to promote not merely acts but habits of self-control, it is clear that if passion alone could justify guilt, no one would be safe. We should be at the mercy of all criminals whose violent life had rendered them unable to bridle the very emotions to which their lawless life rendered them peculiarly predisposed. The real test to be brought to bear, when we are examining the arguments for remitting a capital sentence, is as follows:—First, was the passion such as overpowers human nature, or was it one which only overpowers the wilful and the self-indulgent? Secondly, has it been owing to any fault or *laches* in the criminal that such a passion has swept over his heart; or could any temperate habit or wise effort on his part have moderated its force? There has seldom been an instance of murder in which society could answer these questions in favour of the murderer so confidently as in the case of Hall. He was, according to the testimony of his neighbours, a quiet and well-conducted man. After years of courtship, he married a girl of his acquaintance whom he loved, believing her to be virtuous and chaste. The afternoon of her marriage she quitted his house, and on the next day went openly to visit her seducer. On that day week she left her husband altogether, and was seen at the theatre in company with his rival during the rest of the week. Hall, who seems to have been passionately attached to her, endeavoured in vain to bring her back to him by the promise of a happy home. In return, she insulted him in the open street in the presence of her paramour, and struck him on the face. The jeers of his fellow workmen, the profligate intrigue of his newly married wife, and his love for the wretched woman, all working together, nearly drove Hall out of his senses. The following is the touching language of the memorial presented in his favour by those who have humanely interfered in his behalf:—

"During the whole interval between January 3, when his wife left him, and February 16, George Hall was so much distressed as to attract the notice of his employer and fellow workmen. He described his wife's conduct to his master and asked his advice. . . . On the road home he wept like a child. He said to his master, 'I do love her, and could die for her, and it is such a trouble to me to hear continually of her unfaithfulness. I have been told that she slept with another man, but I will try to forget her. I would have done right by her. She never let me know she did not care for me before we were married, and when she was short of work I have often helped her. I am doomed to be miserable for life.' Mr. Simmonds then asked Hall whether he had any idea of her conduct before their marriage, or if he had himself been guilty of any wrong towards her. Hall replied, 'No, I always treated her well, and never had any wrong intentions towards her, and when I married her believed her to be a virtuous woman. I loved her too much to do her harm.' On several occasions he appeared to Mr. Simmonds and others so much distressed as hardly to know what he was doing."

If the above summary of facts is correct, as indeed is universally conceded, we have here a case where both the conditions above given for the remission of a sentence are fulfilled. A cruel wrong was done to Hall by his own wife, a wrong involving not only the blighting of his hopes and the ruin of his life, but amounting to a confession that for years she had been deceiving him, and that she was the paramour of another even at the very moment she stood before the altar by his side. The better and quieter the man, the greater must be the blow. A deeper wound could scarcely be inflicted on a human creature. The pain is of that kind which, in the language of the Greek philosopher, drives a man out of his nature. For six weeks, however, Hall was ready to forgive her. On the seventh, made desperate by her taunts and her infidelity, he shot her. On receiving sentence of death, the Court learnt from the man's own lips that the jeer which had finally overcome him was this:—

"The first child shall be sworn to you, but it will not be yours; it will be another man's."

The law of the land has nothing to say to the immorality of an action, except so far as the wellbeing of society at large may be affected. It is not, therefore, for anybody to discuss the question whether in the sight of Heaven such provocation mitigates the sin. As far as society is concerned, all that need be said is this: that the provocation was so great that it might well have driven to despair the calmest and most forbearing man alive. No amount of discipline or training can make men safe against a paroxysm of terrible frenzy on being exposed to such an ordeal. There are certain boiling points of passion at which life ceases to be endurable. If the unhappy man who yields to their influence has not by his evil habits invited the temptation, or made himself an easy prey to the first emotion that should arise in him; if the pang was such that no mental medicine could have lightened it; if the pain was beyond human nature, and not caused by his own fault,—the case is one in which society can afford to be merciful. The voice of justice pronounces Hall guilty. But the Home Office, after hearing the sentence of the law, may fairly turn and listen to the opinion of Hall's fellow-countrymen, and among others to the prayer of the very parents of the unhappy girl who has been murdered. To hang the condemned man would not, indeed, be a violation of law or justice, but it would be an outrage on those feelings of our nature, which even when justice has spoken, rise up sometimes and tell us that there is something further to be said.

UNIVERSITY MUSCLES.

ATHLETIC exercise is, beyond all doubt, on the increase in England. The last fifty years have seen country sport after country sport developed into a science by itself, and from a science passing almost into a profession. What the rifled artillery of to day is to Mons Meg, the bowling of the Marylebone and Surrey clubs is to the bowling of their great grand-fathers. Football was once a rural pastime which villagers played in the thickest boots, and with the least possible artistic skill. It is now a game with a code as carefully drawn as the Code Napoleon; and rival schoolmen quarrel over its niceties in the columns of the *Field* newspaper as grave Doctors of Divinity in the middle ages disputed on some of the more delicate points of a theological thesis. The cause of the change, for change there is, is not owing to the fact that John Bull is more muscular than he was, nor is it owing to the invention of muscular Christianity by the gifted author of "Hypatia;" though that philathletic theologian has laboured long and earnestly at the muscles of the various Christian graces, in order to bring them into a perfect shape that may be pleasing to a healthy Christian eye. But Mr. Charles Kingsley might have gone on for ages preaching the glories of our earthly frame, and investing a country gentleman's outdoor exercises with a goodly religious halo, if it had not been for a material alteration that swept about the same time over the face of England. The real Reformer of athletic games is Vulcan—the god of the iron railroad. The most ardent Christian athlete would soon tire of playing cricket by himself. On the other hand, the days of coach travelling would make the life of a systematic cricketer a weariness to the flesh. It is the railroad that enables club to meet club on the cricket field; professionals to perform their missionary circuits; and the Oxford curate of one parish to lead his rustic eleven against the team of his friend the Cambridge curate twenty miles away. The consequence of locomotion and competition is to cultivate and bring out the fine points of the various games; and to elevate each into a region

of scientific certainty and law. It used to be a matter of chance whether Tom Brown, in the religious fervour of his innings against the neighbouring eleven, made five runs or made fifty. His chief care was in all probability to put his trust in Providence and to hit hard. Things have altered now. The laws of hitting and bowling have been discovered with precision and nicety; and something more is necessary to make a fortunate cricketer than a good eye and a tolerable amount of Roman virtue.

Competition in cricket brings competition in other things along with it. Between Oxford and Cambridge men a yearly struggle is now wont to take place, not merely on the river and cricket field, but in the billiard room, the tennis court, the racket court, and last, not least, in running and in jumping. Before many days the Putney eights will race one another before the eyes of half London, to the intense delight and excitement of hundreds whose happiest reminiscences are stirred by the sight either of the light or of the dark blue ribbon. A less fascinating though equally classical contest last Saturday was to be seen in the Christ Church meadow, between the champions of either University. Flat races, hurdle races, high and broad jumping, and a steeple-chase of a mile and a half over a stiff country, decided on the claims of either Academus to be considered the centre of athletic prowess. Silver medals were presented to the winners; and it is pleasant to be able to relate that an equal number of those prizes fell to the lot of Oxford and of Cambridge. This friendly contest is a novelty in the history of the Universities. A few years ago and there was nothing of the kind to be found in either of them, far less was there any attempt to measure the respective muscular fame of the two together. The change denotes progress. Athletics are daily becoming less of a recreation and more of a study and a business. Soon there will be an athletic as well as a classical tripos; the senior bowler of the University will be as envied a man as the senior classic or the senior wrangler; while the muff who misses the catch of the day at Lord's will be as little thought of as the wooden spoon.

It must not be forgotten that the converts which Mr. Kingsley's muscular Church gains at one end it loses at the other. There is now no royal road to cricket or to games in general. They are an awful and a serious mission—not lightly to be taken up, or lightly to be laid aside. They have ceased to serve half of the purpose they originally served, for they are no longer a relaxation only. Nobody trifles now with batting or with bowling in his younger days. The age of "professionals" is come. Fresh air, the glow of motion, and the healthfulness of exercise are secondary objects; the first thing is the science of the sport. Compared with the amusements of our ancestors all are indeed civilized, moral, and humane occupations. But the game which was a distraction has become itself a kind of dissipation. It is hopeless to attempt to be an elegant votary of it, unless you have time sooner or later to make yourself a hierophant. On the whole, then, studious men lose something by the increased popularity of out-door games. It is more difficult than ever it was to serve two masters. The genius of cricket used to require only the sacrifice of an hour or day. He now requires the offering of body and of soul as well. This is where the doctrines of muscular Christianity come in and comfort us. "Be good, dear child," says the prophet of the school, "and let who will be clever." There is no doubt that excellence at cricket is more compatible with moral than with intellectual eminence, and while a first-rate cricketer can hardly expect to be a great philosopher, there is no reason at all why he should not be a good man. Such will be the agreeable reflection of all who watch the two Universities growing as well in muscles as in mind. The cultivation of the muscles is now a profession in itself which may well occupy a mind of moderate calibre through the whole of a long and a well-spent life:—

"But ye,
If ye should never see my face again,
Pray for my muscles; muscles make the man,
Not mind, nor that "confounded intellect,"
Nor anything but muscles. Walk and pray,
And drink large draughts of beer,—for so the world,
Walking God's earth and drinking bottled ale,
Grows in superior manhood day by day."

THE SYSTEM OF RESTRAINT IN OUR PUBLIC ASYLUMS.

THE treatment of lunatics in our public and private asylums has of late, directly and indirectly, attracted much attention. Wilkie Collins first introduced "madhouses" as a principal

element in constructing his celebrated novel, "The Woman in White," and Charles Reade has followed suit in "Hard Cash," a story which turns entirely upon the treatment its hero receives in private lunatic asylums. If the public believes a hundredth part of the atrocities this gentleman informs us are committed in these establishments, they must imagine all the tales told about our improvements in the treatment of the insane to be deliberate falsehoods. According to him, our private asylums are little better than dens of thieves; their proprietors cunning rogues, living upon the miseries of their patients; the keepers, ruffians who break the monotony of their existence by kneeling upon the chests of their charges until their ribs are broken, knocking them down, handcuffing them in the most wanton manner, and treating them generally with the utmost indignity and cruelty. It is a mistake to suppose that there are no sane people within these accursed walls; there are scores of them; indeed, he makes his principal character a person of rare intelligence—a prisoner handed about from asylum to asylum, and in vain demanding his liberty. The gross absurdity of Mr. Reade's descriptions it is unnecessary to expose, as they must be patent to the most credulous of his readers; at the same time, it cannot be doubted that his marked abuse of private asylums is calculated to create great prejudice against them. And this is evidently his aim, for he is perpetually contrasting them with public asylums in the most unfavourable manner. We are not disinclined to overlook the great value of asylums such as Coton Hill for example, in which the commercial element does not exist, but it certainly cannot be said that the great houses in which our pauper lunatics are congregated can in any way boast of treating their inmates with greater humanity than they are treated in private asylums.

Indeed, all the great scandals which have horrified the world have occurred in public asylums. The scrubbing of the poor pauper on the stones in the open yard at Bethlehem has not yet passed out of memory. Not long ago a poor fellow died at Colney Hatch in consequence of injuries received from one of the attendants, and in the Surrey Asylum at Wandsworth a man was done to death in a manner which excited great attention at the time, for the reason that it was accomplished in the name of science. We do not expect to find hobbles and handcuffs in the public institutions for the cure of the insane, but this particular case proved that violence can be restrained even more effectually without their use, and without making any outward sign. It will be remembered this poor wretch was first knocked down with a torrent of water directed upon his head from a shower-bath of unusual dimensions, and in which he was immersed an unheard-of time, and then was finally put out of existence by means of a powerful dose of tartar emetic which paralyzed the weakened action of the heart. Yet all this was done apparently *secundum artem*. Better a thousand times the iron upon the wrists and the strait waistcoat binding the limbs—harmless, though irritating mechanical restraints—than these new methods of prostrating the muscles through the medium of the nervous system. There is no longer any fear of the ugly instruments in use of old, but there is a very great necessity to be watchful that the beneficent element—water—be not converted into an element of restraint of a much more objectionable nature.

An inquest has recently been held upon the body of James Snatchall, a late inmate of the Hayward Heath Lunatic Asylum, which strikingly illustrates the force of our warning. The widow of the poor man, observing that the arm of the corpse was terribly abraded, indeed, in a state of suppuration, apparently from the pressure of some ligament, and fearing that he had been badly used, demanded an inquest. It was given in evidence by the medical superintendent that he ordered him to be packed in wet sheets, which were to be changed every two hours; instead of this being done, however, he was first trussed like a fowl, a towel pinioning his arms by passing over them and under his back, and in that condition he was allowed to remain in the wet sheets all night! The medical superintendent tells us that this is termed Dr. Gully's treatment, and that it is particularly soothing to the nervous system. If the attendant had obeyed his chief's orders, it is possible that no harm might have come of it; but we ask, is it well to adopt a system of treatment which demands on the part of the attendant an amount of watchfulness and care throughout the night that is rarely to be met with? And we may also ask, is it part of Dr. Gully's treatment to pinion the patient's arms? Poor Snatchall, wriggling in wet sheets all night, and working his arm raw against the binding towel, is but a sorry spectacle to those who fondly believe that in our public asylums alone the non-restraint system is effectively carried out. The medical superintendent, it

is true, does not believe that any towel would produce the chafing of the skin which he saw at the *post mortem* examination, but we do not think others will be so hard of belief. Be that as it may, it is admitted that the abrasions were caused by friction, and no explanation whatever was given for the fact of his being pinioned. Dr. Robertson may have liked the operation when under the care of Dr. Gully, but then he was not left all night soaking in the cold; neither are we told that his arms were tied behind him. If this new soothing system can only be put in practice by a re-introduction of a cruel form of restraint, we ask, is the effect adequate to the discomfort produced? Surely there are plenty of soothing draughts capable of calming the nervous system, which would not be open to the gross abuse of this water treatment. It mattered doubtless very little to poor Snatchall whether his bands were of linen or leather, but it would appear that in our public asylums material is everything. Had a leather band been found in the asylum by the Commissioners of Lunacy the medical superintendent would have been subject to grave rebuke. But we must suppose that huckaback is held harmless unless we hear to the contrary. It is not supposed that the poor man died under the treatment he received, or that it tended to shorten his days, which, according to the surgeon who made the *post mortem*, resulted from an attack of apoplexy; but it is certain that he was put to great pain and intolerable discomfort by the application to his case of the system of packing in wet sheets, which may be well enough fitted to sooth the nerves when applied to sane people who can control themselves, but which is quite inapplicable to the insane, who are obliged to be controlled. It must be a very nice question whether the amount of calming effect produced by the wet sheet is at all to be balanced against the irritation produced by being bound with a towel; and when there is a chance of the balance against the patient being further turned by the attendant's neglect to change his sheets, as in this case, the system clearly becomes one of very great peril. At all events those who employ it cannot pretend to practise the non-restraint system, about which we have heard so much of late, especially from the superintendents of public asylums.

CHRISTENING OF THE INFANT PRINCE.

THURSDAY brought fine weather for the young Prince's baptism. Throughout the morning the West End was crowded with carriages conveying the distinguished company invited to witness the ceremony of the Royal christening. The bells of many of the churches rung from an early hour, and there were numerous signs, especially at the West End, of the great public interest in the ceremony. In the vicinity of Buckingham Palace the assemblage of spectators was very numerous. The ceremony took place in the chapel within the palace. Our readers may like to know something of the ceremonial, which, supposing the Royal party already in the chapel, was prescribed as follows:—

The Royal personages having been conducted to their seats, and the great officers and other attendants having taken their appointed places on either side of the chapel, the service will commence with the performance of sacred music.

When the music ceases the Lord Chamberlain, accompanied by the Groom of the Stole to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, and the Chamberlain to her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales, will conduct the infant prince into the chapel, his Royal Highness being carried by the head nurse, and attended by the Countess of Macclesfield, one of the Ladies of the Bedchamber to her Royal Highness the Princess of Wales.

When the Archbishop of Canterbury commences the prayer, "Almighty ever-living God," the Countess of Macclesfield will give the infant prince to the Queen, who will hand his Royal Highness to the Archbishop, and will receive the prince from his Grace when his Royal Highness has been baptized.

The Countess of Macclesfield will then take the prince, who after the service will be reconducted from the chapel in the same way.

THE "ROLF KRAKE."

WE have read with particular interest the account of the first trial of a *Monitor* in Europe—the *Rolf Krake*—a Danish iron-clad turret battery, which, on the 18th ult., was sent to Eggernsunde to attempt the destruction of the Prussian bridge into the Broagen Peninsula. The result, according to one account, was satisfactory. The *Rolf Krake* was under a constant fire from the land batteries on three sides for nearly two hours, yet when she returned to Sonderborg the ship, turrets, artillery, machinery, and everything was uninjured, and fit to go under fire again at any moment. There were about 100 marks outside her where the shot had hit the plating, and some of the crew had been wounded by pieces of shells bursting just over the gratings in the top of the turrets. The reason why she had to return was that the water being so shallow, she could not get near enough to see the bridge, which was protected by a projecting piece of land, and consequently she had to

fire at the bridge at random, without being able to judge of the result.

The correspondent of the *Telegraph*, who visited the *Monitor* some days after the action, does not give so favourable an account of the impunity with which she withdrew. He writes:—

"Of the vessel itself, my report cannot be altogether as satisfactory. During the engagement at Eggernsunde she suffered far more severely than the Danish papers admitted. The Prussian batteries fired with extreme accuracy, and even after ten days' refitting and repairs her hull bore marks of serious damage. The contrivance by which her cupolas are lowered struck me as being too elaborate, and it was proved in action that a well-aimed shot, which struck the cupola in the centre, twisted it so much that it was impossible to turn it afterwards. The grating, too, that covers the top of the cupolas is so wide that the particles of the shells which struck it rained down into the hold; while the bolts which connect the plates of iron together gave way beneath the concussion of the blows inflicted upon them by the impact of the cannon-balls. The *Rolf Krake*, according to all accounts, steers badly, and is not a vessel that any sailor would like to trust himself in in a heavy sea. On the other hand, the noise occasioned by a ball striking her was not found to be painful by any of her crew; and the broad fact remains, that some 150 shot struck her in different parts without a single casualty occurring, and without any injury being inflicted which could not be repaired in a few days' time."

A letter from an officer who was on board during the engagement also shows that the *Monitor* sustained considerable damage though she stood the trial well:—

"She was hulled sixty-six times, each shot being of itself sufficient to sink a wooden ship. The towers were hit several times; sixteen shots went through the funnel, one through the steam-pipe, three through the foremast, one through the mainmast, two through the mizen, and from sixty to seventy through the bulwarks, small boats, sails, and rigging. The deck is torn up in many places, the tackle much injured, three boats penetrated; every vulnerable point was hit, and I should like to have seen any part of the deck where a man could have been stationed without certainty of death. We calculate that about 5,000 lbs. of iron were expended upon us, and you may suppose that we contributed our share. The noise was deafening, produced as much by our own fire as the missiles of the enemy, whose shells flew about in all directions."

The Danish Government is fully satisfied with its *Monitor*, and is constructing others on the same principle as fast as it can make them.

FATAL ACCIDENTS.

SEVERAL remarkable accidents have occurred or been reported since our last number. To begin with, a very painful one which occurred at home on Monday, by which a lad named Simmons lost his life at the hands of Sir William Jolliffe, M.P. Sir William was shooting with a friend on his estate at Merstham, in Surrey. In one part of the grounds there is a chalk pit, into which the boy, who, with others, had been beating the wood and covers, went and remained some little time. On coming out, and just as his head came above the level of the ground, a rabbit started and Sir William fired at it. The charge entered the boy's head, and shortly afterwards he expired, though the best medical aid was immediately provided.

Then, on Sunday week, the 28th ult., a Russian and an English gentleman, whose initials only are given (B— and G—), set out on an Alpine excursion with four guides, intending to ascend the Dent d'Ardon. In crossing a slope, the snow, warmed by the sun, gave way and dashed down the side of the mountain. The account says:—

"At the time of the accident all were properly attached by a new rope, which, however, snapped in two places during the descent, so that when the avalanche reached the valley below, after a slide of 1,800 feet, the travellers were no longer roped together. The two gentlemen and one of the guides were entirely buried in the snow, another guide partly so, and the only two uninjured were the remaining guides, who were attached to the two ends of the rope. Notwithstanding the most heroic efforts of these two men, only two of the party could be got out in time to save their lives. M. B— was found dead in a recumbent position, with his head downwards, and it was only after two days' continued search that the missing guide's body was found. The funeral took place on the 3rd inst., at Lausanne, in the Ouchy burial-ground."

The *Oude Gazette* narrates the third tragedy, which happened to an officer of the 18th Bengal Cavalry, while out shooting with a party, about fourteen miles from cantonments. After resting for tiffin, they were rising to resume their sport, when Major Gough called for "some one with stronger fingers than his own," to come and draw back the safety guard of his rifle trigger. He was at the time seated on the ground, with the butt of the rifle resting on his thigh; the muzzle in the air, and pointed across a jheel. One of the others went to help him; and a few moments later, Mr. Cochrane, who was just then lighting a cheroot, moved to give his aid, passing, as he did so, before the rifle. At that very instant the hammer, that had apparently been resting on the bolt of the guard only, fell on the cap, and Mr. Cochrane was shot through the heart. His death was instantaneous. Mr. Cochrane was senior lieutenant of Her Majesty's 34th Foot; and had been for two years and a half adjutant of the 18th Bengal Cavalry. He wore the Crimean, the Turkish, and the Indian medals, and had been decorated with the order of the Medjidie.

DEATH FROM STARVATION.

THE guardians of Bethnal-green and their relieving officer, Mr. Alexander Christy, maintain their character for rigid adherence to the letter of the Poor-law. They have allowed another wretched woman to slip through their hands because her husband, who only wished to get her into the parish infirmary, would not submit to the Poor-law test and go with her and his two children into the workhouse. The truth is that the test is the grand protection of the Bethnal-green rate-payers. Not one poor person out of fifty will submit to it: so Mr. Christy informed the coroner: and, accordingly, it is invariably applied. We congratulate the guardians on their possession of such an officer as Mr. Christy, whose flesh and blood and bowels of compassion seem to have been composed for the express purpose of applying this cruel and abominable test.

On Tuesday Mr. Humphreys resumed and closed his inquest on the late Sarah Dove, who died at the age of 46 from want and exposure. She had for three winters been subject to asthma, was insufficiently clothed by day and night, and had lately been so ill that she could earn nothing. All that she, her husband, and two children had to support them was the husband's earnings as a casual labourer at the Docks. So she applied to the parish doctor for an order to admit her into the Infirmary, which was given, and taken to Mr. Christy on the Thursday before her death. Generous Mr. Christy came down in the evening to their lodging, with an order for all to go into the workhouse—all or none. The husband remonstrated. "I do not want," he said, "to let my two children go into the workhouse, sir; I can support them and myself by my work. I only want my wife taken into the Infirmary as she is so ill." But the relieving officer was inflexible. All or none! On the following Monday the woman died; and the medical testimony is overwhelming, both that she died of starvation, and that, had she been admitted into the Infirmary, her life would in all probability have been saved. This is murder according to Act of Parliament, and in the name of the national charity.

A PARIS correspondent writes:—"Nothing can surpass the attention of the Emperor to the Archduke Maximilian since his arrival in Paris. The Archduke takes every occasion to express his admiration of his Majesty, whom he looks upon as the highest intellect in the world; and the Emperor, on the other hand, thinks that, with time, his Imperial Highness will come up to his own standard. The Archduke's departure for England is postponed to Tuesday next. The time that elapses before his formal proclamation as Emperor of Mexico will be devoted to organizing a native army on the French model."

THE flock of alpacas presented by the Government of the Equator to the Emperor of the French are now at the Zoological Gardens, in the Bois de Boulogne, and having recovered their appetite, enjoy excellent health. The director has been informed by a telegram from Marseilles of the arrival of a second flock from the Equator, brought by the corvette *Cornetie*, of the imperial navy. Twelve of the seventeen embarked at the Equator have arrived safe, after a passage of seven months. M. Drouyn de Lhuys, president of the Zoological Society, has received a promise from the Peruvian Government that the governor of the province of Puno, which produces the finest alpacas, shall select fifty of the choicest and present them to the Emperor of the French.

A correspondent of the *Gazette de Péronne* communicates the following copy of a letter recently written by a soldier to the mayor of a village near Ham, in answer to a note informing him of his father's death. The brave fellow has learnt to write, certainly, and is a bit of a philosopher in his way; but what most distinguishes him is his original style of spelling:—"Je remairai bocou mocieu le mer de la mors de mon per ses et un petit aquecidan qui arive dans lé familie. Canta moi je suit a lopital avec une jambre de moine avec la quelle jé loneure de vous salué.—S."—which may be thus translated:—"I heartily thank Mr. Mayor for my father's death. It is a little accident which happens in families. As for myself, I am in the hospital minus one leg, with which I have the honour to salute you."

MR. SAMUEL HOWARD, of Stanley, near Perth, late of Burnley, has placed in the hands of trustees, for the use of the town of Burnley, 16 acres of land whereon to erect an infirmary, to be called "The Howard Institution." The land is situate behind the Habergham Eaves parsonage, and represents a value of £16,000. The land not necessarily required for the institution is to be let for building sites, the proceeds of which are to go towards its endowment.

THE O'Connell National Monument Committee has published a lugubrious appeal to the people of Ireland. After two long years of begging through the columns of the press, at chapel-doors, and in every other way they could imagine, they now confess that, "up to the present time, the funds at their disposal are miserably insufficient."

A CALCUTTA letter says:—"Sir John Lawrence rather surprises the 'swells' by walking on Sunday to church and back again without his staff. Old Indians grumble, but Sir John Lawrence is a man to maintain the true dignity and to despise the false, and consequently he can dispense with the 'trappings and the suit' of power."

THE French Society for the Protection of Animals, taking into consideration the cruelty to which horses are exposed when drawing heavy loads of clay from ground excavated for building in various quarters of Paris, have offered a premium of 500*l.* to the inventor of a machine, to be set in motion by steam or any other motive power, of which the application shall have been successfully made in any of the building yards of Paris.

Two of the largest guns in the world are about to be manufactured at Pittsburg in the United States. They will carry round shots of 1,000*lb.* each, have a bore of 20 inches diameter, and weigh about 20 tons each. The two guns will cost about £12,000.

THE sum required to defray the first moiety of the charge payable by Great Britain for the redemption of the Scheldt toll, under the treaty dated July 16, 1863, is £175,650.

ON going into Committee of Supply after Easter, Mr. Richard Long will move for a Select Committee on the Post-office, with an especial view to the improvement of existing arrangements for the transmission of mails in the provincial districts.

THE Rajah of Jheend is dead; two other Rajahs—Puttiahah and Nabah—who rendered us eminent services during the mutinies, died within the year. The Rajah of Jeypore has just been married, and the Rajah of Jhondpore is about to go through the same ceremony for the 21st time.

AT a christening, while the minister was making the certificate, he forgot the date, and happened to say, "Let me see, this is the thirtieth?" "The thirtieth!" exclaimed the indignant mother; "indeed, but it's only the eleventh."

A SUBSTITUTE broker in Springfield, Massachusetts, is said to have made much money by passing toothless men, whom he supplied with teeth made of wax.—*American Paper.*

THE wife of General Tom Thumb was delivered of a son and heir on the 22nd of last month.—*Court Journal.*

THE CHURCH.

THE OXFORD DECLARATION.

CONVERGENCE OF PARTIES IN DEFENCE OF THE CHURCH.

IT is impossible to over-estimate the value of the movement which has suddenly sprung up in the Church of England, and the sense of danger which, for a great purpose, has brought together men who have for years appeared to be ranged in opposite and hostile camps, from whom at least a common action, and the feeling of the common interest requisite to give it life and power, was not to be expected. Stunned by the succession of blows that have been aimed at the very heart of Christianity by men who seemed appointed by their attainments, as they were bound by the mission they had received from the Church, to maintain intact the faith committed to their keeping, the laity have looked to the constituted powers for such a condemnation of these assaults as would at least deprive them of the *quasi* authority they derived from the clerical character of those who made them. One by one the most important doctrines have been assailed. The Scriptures themselves, on which the Church of England bases her faith, have been stripped of their authoritative character by the denial of their plenary inspiration; and in the name of Christianity, with a profession of reverence on their lips for Church and Bible, clergymen, and at least one bishop, have endeavoured to throw down those landmarks of faith which for three centuries have been the guide of the people of this country, the rule of their actions here, and the basis of their hope hereafter. But great and deplorable as this development of opinion has been—calculated, if not directly intended, to overthrow the whole fabric of religion, and to substitute Rationalism for Christianity—the Church of England has found herself confronted with a calamity greater still. Speaking by the lips of her bishops, she has denounced these insidious assaults. Speaking by the lips of her final court of appeal, she has found herself compelled, in spite of herself, to declare that if not lawful, they are at least not illegal. Nay, while she has seen one of her bishops publish volume after volume, declaring that the Bible is not the Word of God, but only the repository in which, amidst the rubbish of fictions and impossibilities, it lies somewhere hidden, to be sought out by each reader by the light of his own conscience, she has had to lament the authority another has given to the judgment which says that it is not contrary to her teaching to deny the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures or the eternity of punishment. In this conflict of opinion, to what have the laity to look? What authority is to establish them in their faith, when that to which, at least in the eye of the law, it belongs finally to pronounce what is heresy and what is not, trumpets it abroad that it is no denial of that faith to impugn the veracity of the very foundation on which it is built? In the presence of the peril which such a judgment evokes, there is but one resource left to the Church of England; and that resource is—herself! She feels this. She sees that the time is come when those who agree upon her fundamental doctrines should lay aside for awhile their dispute whether it is right to intone her services or to read them,—to preach in a surplice or a gown,—should suppress the discussion even of matters more important still, in order to present a common front to the common enemy. This deep conviction throbs

through her whole being, and the Oxford Declaration is the result.

And let there be no mistake about the character of the evil with which she has to cope, the extent to which it is making head, or the goal to which it threatens to lead this nation. There is no power of binding the intellect except by divine authority; and if it is admitted that no such authority exists, there is no limit to the range of its speculations or to the daring character of its assertions. However cautiously the late judgment has been worded, it has practically made this admission. For if it is not illegal to deny the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures, it is impossible to see what protection they derive from the subtle and worthless distinction that the Church, though she does not prohibit such denial, does not sanction it. Men of plain sense will conclude that what is not unlawful is lawful, and that what the Church does not condemn she permits. But if it is lawful to deny the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures—if she permits her clergy and laity to question the divine authority of the record on which she is based, from which she derives her mission and her doctrines—she opens a door to unlimited speculation over which she has parted with all control. See at once the proof of this in the denial of eternal punishment by men who have received her orders and who are declared not to have contravened her teaching. And when thus early in the struggle between infidelity and faith a dogma so vital is delivered over to the sceptic, what limit shall we place to the further inroads which the late judgment, if it will not defend, will certainly have encouraged? From a portion of the press the exulting cry has been raised that that judgment has struck the fetters from the minds of the clergy; that it is “the Magna Charta of honest inquiry in the Church,” the Emancipation Act of her “muzzled slaves.” Such is the interpretation placed on it by writers sympathizing with those who deny the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures and the doctrine of eternal punishment, and who show plainly enough that they will not rest satisfied with the impeachment of that dogma. But while we thus see the doctrines of the Church of England threatened, we cannot forget that it is impossible to separate faith from morals, or believe that one can be struck down and the other remain intact. If the pride of the intellect and impatience of authority lead men to clip and fashion the canon of faith to their will, they have yet stronger motives in their passions urging them to modify the canon of morals. The concession of freedom to do the one involves the right to do the other; and when we have taught men to discard from their creed the eternal punishment of sin, the strongest bulwark of Christian morals is broken down. There remain, indeed, the restraints of society, the virtue which many dispositions receive from nature, and the punishments of temporal laws. But these reach mostly the public actions of men, their offences against law and social decorum. They are no substitute for that salutary awe which, entering into the religious faith of man, pervades his actions, whether public or private, and sways both his thoughts and the innermost emotions of his heart.

It is, then, in the defence of faith directly, and inferentially of morals, that the Oxford Declaration has been made,—to assert the convictions of the Church of England, not through any mouthpiece with which the Legislature has provided her, but by her own voice, and with no uncertain sound. It claims no right over the consciences of men, however erring according to its standard they may be; nor does it seek to place any limit to inquiry, whether honest or otherwise. But it protests against the supposition that the Church holds that the foundation of her faith is not divinely inspired. It takes the profession of her faith out of the hands of the Judicial Committee, and restores it to herself. It declares that those who maintain that the Scriptures are compounded of the Word of God and of something else which is to be rejected as not of divine authority, do not express the belief of the Church and have no right to represent her. It declares emphatically that the late judgment which pronounces it not unlawful to deny the plenary inspiration of the Scriptures and the eternity of punishment, contradicts the real teaching of the Church of England which asserts both. And in doing all this, it invites the clergy to make a stand against inroads upon faith, which, if suffered to maintain their course unchecked, will in the end leave the Church nothing of Christianity but the name. That invitation has been promptly responded to. There is not a section of the Church which is not represented in the signatories of the Declaration. From either extreme the clergy hasten to lay aside their differences in the defence of their common faith. Such a movement the Church of England has not seen since that of which Dr. Pusey—who now shakes hands over the Oxford Declaration with Dr. Miller—was one of the leaders, and which received

from him its name. That was a movement of divergence; this of union. And no better expression of the danger which now threatens the fundamental doctrines of the Church could England have, than this rallying of conflicting leaders to a common standard.

THE OXFORD DECLARATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE “LONDON REVIEW.”

SIR,—May I venture to hope you will insert in your columns the following reasons which induce me, in common I am sure with many of my brethren in the ministry, to refuse my signature?

I. The declaration, at this particular time, if it has any definite meaning, must be understood as a protest against the recent Judgment of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council on “*Essays and Reviews*.” As such, it is surely impertinent and uncalled for. That Judgment does not affirm that the great doctrines in question may be denied with impunity; but only that the appellants, in the extracts submitted, had not directly denied them.

II. The declaration, if required at all, is utterly inadequate. Why should it name only two points of doctrine when other equally important points have also been assailed? Why should not the “atonement” and “justification by faith only,” as well as the “inspiration and authority of the whole Canonical Scriptures” and “everlasting punishment of the cursed,” be included in the declaration? The reason, indeed, may be easily discovered. The extreme parties who have combined on the two latter points could not have been brought to combine on the two former also; their opinions, as may be seen in the “organs” of the respective parties, differing, *toto celo*, upon these and other points.

III. The terms employed, brief as they are, in the declaration, are in part excessive, in part superfluous. In the first clause the word “whole” would prevent any one signing who believed that a single interpolation or error had crept into the Sacred Text. The second clause, in substance, merely asserts that in Matt. xxv. 46, one and the same word (*aiónios*) is applied both to the life of the righteous and to the punishment of the wicked—a fact which nobody would deny, and which needed not a formal declaration.

IV. Instead of adopting irregular proceedings, such as insincere combinations, empty denunciations, and vain efforts for enforcement of pains and penalties, surely the time has come when it would be far better to leave matters of dispute to the logic of love, or to the pen of friendly reasoning. Other methods only increase the evil which they seek to suppress; or if eventually they should succeed, the result would be to bring everything to a dead level. Free thought and inquiry may occasionally err; but we should always remember that to free thought and inquiry we owe, under Providence, whatever is great and good, whether in Church or State.

Believe me, Sir, yours faithfully,

Much Marcle Vicarage,
March 7, 1864.

A. W. CHATFIELD.

SCIENCE.

MR. PALGRAVE'S TRAVELS IN ARABIA.*

THE doings of travellers always draw large crowds to the meeting-room of the Geographical Society, but at the last meeting the interest of geographers was raised higher than it has been on any occasion since the arrival of the now famous travellers of the Nile. Mr. Gifford Palgrave, son of the late Sir Francis Palgrave, has passed from Gaza, in Southern Syria, across North Central Arabia, in a nearly diagonal line, to El Khatif, on the Persian Gulf, and thence to the little-known kingdom of Oman, at the extreme eastern corner of Arabia. The paper itself was little more than a sketch of what he has achieved; but even in this form it treated of scenes and countries respecting which so little is known, and that little almost uniformly erroneous, that it is pregnant with interest. Disguises had to be prepared at Gaza,—so great is the Arabs' jealousy of Europeans,—and Mr. Palgrave travelled as a wandering doctor, being regarded by those he encountered as a quack who had committed some civil crime in his native Damascus and had fled into Arabia, a character he took no pains to disclaim, and which, united with a certain amount of real medical knowledge, proved of great service to him, as it not only brought him in contact with all classes of society, but attracted to his ministrations for physical ailments numbers of persons who resided eight, ten, and even twelve days' journey distant, and from whom he derived valuable information as to the routes he should adopt to avoid embroilments. Mr. Palgrave has been eighteen years from England. On leaving Gaza the desert is at once encountered, and the frontier of the kingdom of Djebel-Schonor, the most northerly division of Arabia, is reached at Maan. Between this and the Jauf province of the Upper Nedjed is a waterless desert, inhabited by the most desperate of all the Bedouin tribes. In crossing this the party found but one watering-place, and nearly perished in a simoom. No living thing was encountered there but a few serpents and lizards until the frontier had been reached of the independent principality of Djebel Schonor, marked by the Wadi Serhan. For seven days the road continued through this valley, as far as Magua, a large encampment of the Shevarata, and on the 30th June they entered Jauf. Here are groups of lovely villages nestling under palm-trees, and two ancient Christian

* This article should have appeared two weeks ago. It has been held over through the pressure on our columns of other articles.

towers, but not of the Roman period, command the place and the entrance of the Wadi; this being a great centre of commerce for the Bedouins of Northern Arabia.

He next proceeded southward to Hail, the capital of Djebel-Schonur, a city of 20,000 inhabitants, near the southern frontier. He had now reached the great central plateau of Arabia, and entered the renowned kingdom of the Wahabites. At Riyadh, the modern capital, the better known Derayah having been destroyed by Ibrahim Pasha, the party remained seven weeks, when they found it advisable to escape secretly, and, after some danger, reached El Khatif. Mr. Palgrave's companion was now detached to Bagdad, lest the valuable results obtained by their joint labours should be lost, while he alone faced the greater perils of a journey to the piratical coast of Oman. In this latter adventure he narrowly escaped death by shipwreck, out of a party of twenty-one but nine surviving. He was kindly treated by the potentate known to us as the "Imam of Muscat,"—an entire misnomer, his title being "Sultan of Oman," and his capital, Shohar, a little north-west of Muscat, the chief trading emporium. From this point, after three months of solitary travel, he rejoined his companion at Bagdad, no intelligence of him having reached any of his friends for eleven months.

Mr. Palgrave then gave a graphic account of the peculiarities of the various tribes encountered, and narrated with much humour the straits in which he found himself in his search after knowledge. He first dispelled the illusion that prevails as to the identity of the wandering Bedouin with the Arab proper, and considers the entire peninsula as given over to a nomad race inhabiting tents. The Bedouins encircle the more settled central kingdom, in which forms of society as firmly established, and as strong marked as in more civilized countries, occur. Some of the cities have as many as 20,000 inhabitants, and there are not only shops, bazaars, and mosques, but houses of two and three stories, displaying occasionally a considerable degree of taste. It is well known that hospitality is an Arab virtue, but he was hardly prepared to find that the fact of his being a Christian, of which he made no secret, never subjected him to the slightest insult or inconvenience. Much more serious annoyance arose from the severity of the Wahabite code of Mahomedanism. Ibn Abd-el-Wahhab about a century since revived the Mahomedan precepts in all their pristine strictness, so that any one desirous of understanding what Islamism resembled in its palmy days of early enthusiasm could not do better than visit Riyadh. Their followers are divided into mollahs, or spiritual guides, who have nothing but learning and devotion to recommend them. So rigorously are the precepts of the Koran observed that a debasing fatalism supplies the place of all religion. There is, too, the most grotesque disproportion in the classification of great and little sins. Murder, robbery, and the like are those of which Providence reserves the condign punishment to himself. While on the other hand, the most deadly and abominable of all sins is tobacco-smoking.

The greatest religious zeal prevails, prayers being enjoined five times a day, and every act that a man performs is ascribed to God. Punishment is inflicted with severity for any offences against morals and religion. On one occasion the brother of the King was stripped and beaten at his own palace-gate for smoking, and the Minister of the Treasury was so well beaten for some other offence that he died the next day. Though Mr. Palgrave was known to indulge occasionally in tobacco, he was not molested, and might have remained much longer had he not successfully treated an attack of paralysis of the lingual nerve in a patient by the external application of an infinitesimal quantity of strychnine. The fame of this cure reached the royal ears, and his Majesty redoubled his attentions to the Syrian doctor, with the view of obtaining some of the wonder-working powder—a gift that was refused on the plea of danger in unpractised hands; but this quality, unfortunately, only made it the more precious in the king's eyes as an instrument for carrying out State ends. After a scene, in which Mr. Palgrave was menaced with destruction through his firmness in refusing to become an accomplice in political assassination, he made his escape during the long evening prayers, and reached El Khatif, buried amongst its roses. Whilst in the Wahabite capital, however, his success in medicine had given him other opportunities of visiting the king, and on two occasions of seeing the royal stud, which consists of the purest breed of the Arabian horse, the celebrated Nujji breed. Whatever one could imagine, he said, of the perfect beauty of a horse was outdone by these. He had never seen such perfect animals. The Arab horses sent to Europe were obtained from Barbary and Syria, but the Nujji breed had never been sent to Europe, and never would be. They were never sold by any chance whatever; they could only be got either in war, or as a present, or as an heritage from father to son. They were a small breed, rarely exceeding fifteen hands high. The prevailing colour was grey. Not a single bay did he see. Chesnut was occasionally seen, some were mottled, a few white, and a very few black, indeed none perfectly black. The beauty of the race was in the excessive cleanness of the legs, which more resembled those of stags than those of horses, in the extraordinary delicacy of the muzzle, the graceful sweep of the haunches, the beautiful set-on of the tail, and in the extreme slope of the shoulder-blade, which gives these horses a pliancy, such as he had never seen in any other breed. There were 130 horses in the stables.

Oman he described as by far the most beautiful portion of Arabia, resembling India in climate as also in physical geography, a line of mountains analogous to the Western Ghats, but apparently as high as Lebanon, running down the Arabian

Sea from Ras Mussendom to below Muscat. The Sultan (or Imam) received him very hospitably; and he considers much of the peculiarity of the natives to arise from their being cut off from the rest of Arabia by the vast deserts. The nominal State religion all over Arabia is Islamism; but except in the large towns it is anything but obtrusive, and is usually intermingled with superstitious observances strongly suggestive of a lingering trace of the old Sabæan worship of the sun. Thus, in Northern Arabia the people prayed as the first ray of the sun rose above the horizon, and so continued until its whole disc was clear; and again in the evening, reversing the order,—a ritual which is stringently prohibited by the Koran, as the sun is supposed to rise and set between the horns of Eblis, to whom, therefore, all prayers thus performed ought to be addressed! Again, in Oman the people pray to the sun with their faces to the north, and on inquiry he learned, to his surprise, that the name they applied to the north star was that very same mysterious title Jah, assumed to himself by the Almighty in the Book of Exodus. This he was inclined to attribute to the idea of fixity which, in their ignorance of astronomy, they would probably attribute to the only star that seemed to them always to occupy the same place. He remarked also that all anti-Islamitic nations were always to be found in the East nestled among the mountains.

POISONING BY ABSORPTION.—A child of 9 years, the daughter of a small farmer at Wissett, in Suffolk, died soon after medical aid was called. The surgeon, satisfied that the child had died from poison, refused to certify, and an inquest was accordingly held. When the jury viewed the body the scalp of the head was in a shocking state from ringworm, and covered with vermin. The stepmother ten days before the death of the child had applied precipitate powder and some arsenical ointment to the head, to kill the vermin. On a post-mortem examination it was felt important to ascertain how the arsenical poison was administered. The viscera were sent to Professor Taylor, who stated that the child had died from arsenic applied externally, and absorbed into the system. The condition of the viscera, in their appearances, in the nature of their contents, and in the minute imponderable quantity of arsenic present in them, was not consistent with the supposition that arsenic had been given in any form by the mouth, but it was quite consistent with the absorption of the poison through the skin of the scalp, and its subsequent diffusion by the blood. The scalp, too, was found to contain a large quantity of arsenic, associated with a quantity of mercury (white precipitate).

EDUCATION AID MOVEMENT IN MANCHESTER.—The scheme for the formation of an Education Aid Society for Manchester and Salford has for its object the education of the children of the poor on principles in which all the religious denominations may unite. The society is to aid these children by payment of the school-pence; the schools eligible to receive the children being those under the Privy Council on Education, but those not in receipt of Government grants are also eligible, provided they be recognised by some religious body, or regularly use the Bible as a reading-book. In all cases the choice of the school is to remain with the parents, but the committee will make up the list to be aided under the scheme. Resolutions establishing such a society have been carried at a large public meeting, and a subscription opened.

THE IRON FRIGATE "ACHILLES" steamed her machinery for the first time on Saturday last at her moorings in Chatham Harbour, under the direction of their makers, Messrs. Penn & Sons, the result being in the highest degree satisfactory. Their power is 1,250 nominal horse-power, and with the screw propeller disconnected the engines averaged 70 to 75 revolutions per minute, the machinery working with the greatest smoothness and regularity. The *Achilles* now waits instructions from the Admiralty for the trial of the measured mile at Maplin Sands.

INDIAN TELEGRAPH.—A telegraphic despatch has been transmitted through the first section of the new Indian cable in the Persian Gulf. The contents of the first two cable vessels had been successfully paid out from Gwadel to Cape Mussendom, about 450 miles. The cable was in perfect order and working well. Two other vessels had arrived at Bombay, and the expedition would continue paying out the line towards Europe, the next section being from Cape Mussendom to Bushire, and the final one from Bushire to Bussorah, in all 1,250 miles.

EAST AFRICAN ZOOLOGY.—At the Zoological Society, on Tuesday, Dr. Schaler read a notice of the mammals and birds collected by Captain Speke during his East African expedition. The species of the former enumerated were thirty-eight, the most remarkable being a new antelope of the genus *Tragelaphus*, proposed to be called *T. Spekei*. The birds collected were sixty-one, amongst which were five new to science.

LONDON MORTALITY.—The table laid before Parliament for the ten years 1851-61 shows an average annual mortality for all England and Wales of 2,217 per 100,000, or, as more generally written, 22.17 per 1,000. In the Farnborough district, in Hampshire, and in Bellingham and Roshbury, in Northumberland, the annual mortality was less than 15 in 1,000. For the metropolis and suburbs the ratio was 2,363,—the highest amounts being St. George's in the East, 2,879, and St. Giles's, 2,846; the lowest are Hampstead, 1,760, Lewisham and Plumstead, 1,787, Hackney, Stamford-hill, and Stoke Newington, 1,880, and St. George's, Hanover-square, 1,891.

RUSSIAN PETROLEUM.—It is stated that in the southern provinces of Russia a large extent of country has been "tapped," yielding fine petroleum. This discovery will, if the supply prove permanent, have an important bearing on the trade of Odessa and Sebastopol.

FOSSIL FLINT IMPLEMENTS have recently been found between Southampton and Gosport, and at Fisherton, near Salisbury.

FINE ARTS.

MUSIC.

MR. GYE's programme for the ensuing season of the Royal Italian Opera (to commence on Tuesday fortnight) is rich in its *répertoire* of works already available and its promise of novelties, as also in the list of accessions to the company. In addition to the singers of last season—including, among others, Mdle. Adelina Patti, Mdle. Pauline Lucca, Mdle. Fricci, Madame Didiée, Signori Mario, Tamberlik, Naudin, Ronconi, Graziani, Tagliafico, Ciampi, and M. Faure—several artists of great continental repute will make their first appearance here. One of the earliest arrivals will be Mdle. Lagrua, who brings with her a high reputation in opera seria, and will make her first essay as Norma, afterwards appearing as Leonora ("Il Trovatore"), Leonora ("La Favorita"), Leonora ("Fidelio"), and as Donna Anna, Desdemona, and in the principal character in Verdi's "La Forza del Destino." From this assignment of parts it is to be assumed that this lady has high pretensions in tragic opera, and it is to be hoped may supply the void left by Madame Grisi's retirement. Mdle. Destinn, from the Vienna Opera, who is announced for Azucena, it would appear, is to divide with Madame Didiée the contralto parts, a further partition of which would seem to be contemplated by the announcement of Mdle. Tati (from the Lisbon Opera) as Fides in the "Prophète." Mdle. Garulli (from Milan) will probably help to sustain secondary parts. Signor Scalse (from the Paris Italian Opera) will appear as Dr. Bartolo and Leporello; and Herr Wachtel, who was heard for three nights here in the season of 1862, is to essay the parts of Arnold in "Tell," and John of Leyden in the "Prophète;" while Herr Schmid, from Vienna, is cast for Oroveso ("Norma"), Marcel ("Huguenots"), Il Commendatore ("Don Giovanni"), and Falstaff in Nicolai's opera founded on the "Merry Wives of Windsor," the production of which work will be one of the most interesting events of the season. For refined comic humour and graceful melody, modern Germany has produced nothing comparable to Nicolai's opera: with the advantages of its performance at the Royal Italian Opera, it can scarcely fail of success. Another important novelty will be Verdi's last work, "La Forza del Destino," which will be given with the four principal singers who appeared in the opera on its production at St. Petersburg; these artists being Mdle. Lagrua, Madame Didiée, Signor Graziani, and Signor Tamberlik. A quasi-novelty will be Meyerbeer's "Etoile du Nord," which was produced with such splendour by Mr. Gye just before the burning of the former theatre, and will derive fresh interest from its eight years' silence. The revival of Rossini's "Otello," with Signor Tamberlik as the hero; M. Faure's appearance as Figaro; Signor Mario's first assumption of the part of Faust; with the alternate representation of Margherita by Mdle. Patti and Mdle. Lucca, are the chief remaining points of interest in a programme that foreshadows a brilliant season. Mr. Costa continues to preside over the magnificent orchestra which has for many years formed one of the most important features of this establishment; while the splendour of the scenic department will be maintained by Messrs. Beverley, Grieve, and Telbin; and Mr. Harris will, as before, superintend the management of those grand and elaborate stage effects for which this house has long been unrivalled.

Although the season at Her Majesty's Theatre will not commence until April 9, more than a week after the opening of the Royal Italian Opera, the programme was issued but a few hours after that of the rival establishment. The arrangements here announced are also of excellent promise. The principal singers of last season, including Mdle. Titiens, Mdle. Volpini, Madame Trebelli, Signori Giuglini, Bettini, Gassier, and Mr. Santley, still remain in the company, which is to be reinforced by the accession of various new comers of continental celebrity; among whom are Mdle. Vitali, Mdle. Wippen (soprano), Mdle. Grossi, Mdle. Bettelheim (mezzo-soprano and contralto), Signor Fancelli (tenor), Signori Mazzetti, Gasperoni, and Junca (bass). Several new appearances are also announced in the ballet, which, it would seem, is still to be a feature at this establishment. Two of the new works promised by the other house (Verdi's "La Forza del Destino" and Nicolai's "Merry Wives of Windsor") are also announced by this; in addition to which, that vexed question of the so-called "Music of the future" is to receive practical illustration by the production of Wagner's "Tannhauser," the cast of which (including Titiens, Giuglini, and Mr. Santley) augurs well for its efficient performance, especially as, moreover, the part of Venus will be represented by Mdle. Wippen, from the Berlin Opera, where Wagner's work has received its best interpretation and made its chief success. The production of this work, whatever may be the result, reflects the highest credit on the management, and it is to be hoped the enterprise will meet with no injury from the foregone conclusions of any critical cabal: such things have been, even in this free and enlightened country. The first appearance here of Mdle. Titiens in "Fidelio," and the revival of "Der Freyschütz," in addition to the performance of the many standard works which constitute the existing *répertoire* of Her Majesty's Theatre, with the advantage arising from the retention of Signor Arditi as conductor, hold out the certainty of a season of more than average attractions.

The new mass of Rossini will, it is said, be performed on March 14, at the inauguration of the hotel of M. Pillet-Will, the friend of the composer. The Paris journals state that the manu-

script bears a note, signed by Rossini, to this effect:—"I hope that this mass will be accepted on High for all my sins, and will open to me the gates of Paradise. Amen." Other great composers, both Catholic and Protestant, have produced religious music with similar aspirations, although not quite so palpably expressed. Whatever may be thought of the taste of Rossini's inscription, it at least requires justification by a work of a high devotional character.

Gounod's "Faust," after running the round of France, Germany, Italy, and England, has made its way into Spain, having been given with success at Barcelona, the cast including Mdle. Volpini.

NEW MUSICAL PUBLICATIONS.

WE have recently noticed some very graceful vocal music by Mr. Henry Smart, and have now before us two songs by the same composer, "The Sailor Boy's Mother," and "The Fisherman's Welcome," in both of which Mr. Smart shows that an accomplished artist can dignify the most popular and simple forms by finish of style and skill of touch. The first-named piece, in the hands of many of our ballad-makers, would have degenerated into mawkish, commonplace sentiment; but Mr. Smart has illustrated the little incident of the mother's grief for her shipwrecked son by a touching though homely melody of unmistakably English character. His pianoforte accompaniment, too, simple as it is, is written with care and correctness. Sung by a mezzo-soprano voice of sympathetic quality, this little song must be effective.

The second of Mr. Smart's songs, which has more of the character of the German *lied* than the English ballad, is so finished and elegant, in both melody and accompaniment, that it would have done no discredit to Mendelssohn. The figure of the accompaniment reminds us somewhat, but without plagiarism, of that composer's two-part song, "Abschiedslied." "Sing, Birdie, Sing," by Wilhelm Ganz, has been so repeatedly sung by Madame Parepa, and encored in its performance, that its publication may well dispense with any critical encomium. If to us it appears somewhat commonplace, its general success with an audience may well reconcile both composer and publisher to such difference of opinion. "Bird of the Wilderness," by Boyton Smith, is a pretty setting of words by the Ettrick Shepherd. The mere prettiness of the tune, however, scarcely reflects the sentiment and intention of the poet; yet it may please those who are content with a light tripping melody. The same composer has set Moore's sacred song, "Fallen is Thy Throne, O Israel," to a flowing cantabile melody, which, if not quite dignified enough for the text, is very vocal in style, and has a certain expressive character somewhat after the modern Italian manner. The publishers of the above pieces, Messrs. Ashdown and Parry, of Hanover-square, have also issued an English version of Robert Schumann's "Sonnenschein," one of that composer's many exquisite songs, the beauty and sentiment of which should have sufficed to temper the virulence with which certain English critics have assailed him. There is scarcely any composer who has surpassed Schumann in the intense feeling and poetical expression of his songs. Among various pianoforte pieces, also from Messrs. Ashdown & Parry, we find two by Mr. Charles Salaman, "Twilight Thoughts" (a nocturno), and "Joy" (impromptu), both of which are characterised by much graceful feeling and pleasing melody, combined with that elegant elaboration of passages, that, without being difficult, enable a moderate player to produce a brilliant effect. Both pieces are calculated to improve the taste and mechanism of the student. The same publishers have also issued a new edition of Henselt's "Romance and Etude" ("Si oiseau j'étais"), edited by his pupil, Madame Alice Mangold, whose charming performance of this and other specimens of the romantic school of pianoforte music was one of the specialties of last season. "Love's Young Dream," by W. Kuhe, is a transcription of a well-known Irish melody, embellished with passages of arpeggio and other fanciful embroideries, after the manner of Thalberg, in his setting of "Home, sweet Home." Mr. Kuhe's fantasia, without any excessive difficulty, is well calculated for brilliant display in drawing-room performance. In similar fashion, but with somewhat more mechanical effort, has Donizetti's "Or che in cielo" been set by Franz Henault. This style, however, has been so thoroughly and so admirably wrought by Thalberg, that there is now little room for anything beyond a weak imitation of that master. Among other pieces from the same house (Messrs. Lambourn Cock, Hutchings, & Co.), we find an elegant nocturno, "Twilight," by Mr. F. B. Jewson, and two characteristic pieces by Mr. H. C. Lunn; the first of which, "Dream Song," is in the Nocturno style, based on a flowing and graceful melody, contrasted with some arpeggio passages, which afford capital practice for the left hand. "In Camp," a military gallop, is a spirited movement in the dance form, well calculated to contrast with musical studies of a graver kind. These pieces are well suited for the improvement and amusement of students.

LORD LYNTHURST'S PICTURES.—The total realized by this important sale was upwards of £5,000. Amongst the pictures sold were some of the most important works of Lord Lyndhurst's father, the distinguished historical painter and Royal academician, John Singleton Copley. Most of the portraits by him have been acquired for the National Gallery and National Portrait Gallery. For the former, Copley's grand gallery picture and *chef d'œuvre*, engraved by Heath, and ex-

hibited at the late International Exhibition. "The Death of Mazas Peirson," for the price of £1,600; "Head of Lord Heathfield," a study for the picture of the "Siege of Gibraltar;" and the "Portrait of Lord Mansfield, seated in his Robes," an original picture, and never engraved, for the latter. His portrait of Admiral Lord Duncan, the hero of Camperdown, was bought by the Hon. H. Duncan, and will doubtless become a heir-loom in the noble family of Camperdown. From amongst the pictures by other artists, the "Portrait of Archbishop Laud," by Vandyck, was also secured for the National Portrait Gallery. The well known family picture containing the portraits of Copley himself, his wife, the future Lord Lyndhurst, and Copley's other children, was bought by Mr. Clarke for a thousand guineas.

We see that a movement is on foot for the purpose of raising funds for a testimonial to Miss Louisa Pyne. Miss Matilda S. Clift, of 19, Langham-place, W., is the Honorary Secretary, and the list of the Committee contains amongst others the following names:—Blanchard Jerrold, Charles Lucas, Frank Matthews, Sims Reeves, Brinley Richards, G. A. Sala, Benjamin Webster, W. H. Weiss, Madame Laura Baxter, Mrs. Frank Matthews, Madame Puzzi, Madame Rudersdorff, Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Mademoiselle Titjens, and Madame Weiss.

THE Passion Week performance of the Messiah will be given at Exeter Hall on Monday, the 21st, by the National Choral Society, under the direction of Mr. G. W. Martin; the principal vocalists, Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Miss Palmer, Mr. Sims Reeves, and Mr. Lewis Thomas. Band and chorus, 700 performers.

MONEY AND COMMERCE.

It would seem that the sudden fits and starts which have recently occurred in the current of business in the money market will, in all probability, continue. Every now and then symptoms of pressure are apparent, a failure or two takes place, and the opinion then becomes general that the Bank will have either to advance the rate of discount or refuse the negotiation of a certain class of paper. When things have apparently reached their worst some exceptional circumstance arises, and with a temporary influx of gold from Australia and America a return to ease is almost as if by magic accomplished. Within the last four or five days we have passed through one of these remarkable phases, owing to the payments of the third and fourth of the month having so closely followed each other, while there has been the additional efflux of gold to Brazil, which constituted the largest withdrawal that has taken place for some time. Although in the interim, to illustrate truly the course of events, one or two commercial mishaps have ensued, the announcement by telegram of gold coming forward from Australia has been nearly sufficient to allay apprehensions, and the inquiry for discount having slackened, we are almost again in a situation of repose.

With the money market, however, in such a very sensitive position, it is essential that caution should be exercised in the various financial arrangements that may be attempted to be carried out. It is in fact just in that critical position that the least over-weight or strain may destroy the balance; and if that is once lost, there is no telling what may be the consequences. This is in reality the dread we have of the startling accession of new companies every day paraded before our eyes; and if to these is to be added the further weight of the new Mexican loan, placed at the lowest at £28,000,000, the financial equilibrium of the country may soon be destroyed. There can be no doubt but that we are fast verging towards an important change, and it is to be feared that, although it may be temporarily preceded by some little animation in the prices of public stocks and shares, the result will be one of those momentous crises which periodically inflict so serious an amount of evil. It must be confessed that we are proceeding rapidly in this direction, because the extensive nature of the enterprises now introduced show that when the calls have to be arranged there will be an absorption of resources, however elastic they may seem at present, that cannot fail to press in some quarters.

It is also evident, from what is passing at the Stock Exchange, that the brokers and jobbers view the condition of affairs in much the same light; for although new schemes are daily thrust upon public attention, they do not float at the prices they did a few months ago, with twice the same encouragement in ordinary support as before the passing of the regulation for increased capital and deposit payments. The pending investigation into the allotment and settlement of the Australian and Eastern Steam Navigation Company has also greatly damped the ardour of the speculators; for if the bargains should be abrogated, a great number of the dealers will lose large profits, and several be irretrievably ruined. The excess of the extended engagements will, either in one shape or other, work their own cure; for, whatever may be the views or sanguine operators, it is very certain that the public begin to watch with anxiety the rapid issue of shares that are now so freely forced into circulation.

Two or three undertakings a day, principally second and third class, are announced as being open to application for shares; and though first-rate projects may yet have a chance of obtaining capital, these others cannot hope to be successful. They will be worked on the basis of glowing prospectuses; a little rigging will

be ventured to get the shares to a premium; and when the allotment takes place, they will quietly recede to a discount, being eventually cleared altogether from the market. So large is the amount of floating securities, that the brokers and dealers must in self-protection select those which they propose to deal in, or when the storm shall be experienced they will be left with their boxes so heavily burthened with shares and scrip that it will be utterly impossible to realize a tithe of them. Special undertakings, those of course with good names and *bond fide* objects, will escape shipwreck, but their full values will in a degree be jeopardized by the revulsion when it comes.

There is no saying how close it may be at hand, or how far distant, but with public enterprise careering along as it is at present, every day must bring us within the eventual reach of the great catastrophe. The public have, there is reason to believe, exercised a great deal of prudence since the autumn of last year; and had it not been for their vigilance in avoiding an indiscriminate rush into every undertaking announced, we should have before this encountered a greater or less panic. Through this circumspection many undertakings which would have entailed sacrifice and loss have been nipped in the bud, and their promoters and directors placed thoroughly *hors de combat*.

Even while we write two or three fresh plans are being issued for the institution of banks, credit and manufacturing companies, and there seems no restraint upon capital or the patience of subscribers, who are willing to be drawn into this vortex of operations. Here and there a prize may be secured, though not in the shape of immediate profit, as was the case several months ago, and sanguine though many may be, respecting the ultimate welfare of their enterprises, their success, except under particular circumstance, is not likely to be so signal as in the spring of last year.

The Bank Directors separated on Thursday without making any alteration in the rate of discount. There was no general expectation that a change would take place, but it is now usual to make inquiry on every Court day lest by any sudden impulse the terms should either be raised or reduced. The demand which was good at the Bank in the early part of the week has since diminished, and is now somewhat under the average, so that it is not probable the official minimum will exhibit just at present any marked fluctuation. The bankers and bill-brokers, in the face of a little more ease, are working one-eighth to a quarter per cent. below that price in order to secure the waifs and strays that would otherwise find their way to the great establishment. It is astonishing what a species of chaffering goes on to obtain money a fraction cheaper out of doors than at the Bank, and from this competition is soon determined the tendency of quotations.

It turns out that the £316,000 withdrawn from the vaults of Threadneedle-street on Tuesday was for despatch to the Bank of Brazil, being forwarded by their agents, the Union Bank of London, and it is thought that further parcels will follow. The other points to which bullion must again be forwarded, though for the present there is a lull in the movement, are India and Egypt. But while this absorption is going forward, returns are secured, yet they do not come to hand so quickly as the bullion goes out. The drain to Paris has entirely ceased, the state of the exchange has rectified that matter, and the success of the late loan has put M. Fould in possession of funds for a short time to come. It is to be hoped that we shall escape the effect of an immediate revulsion till at least the spring and summer have been passed through; and if the harvest be abundant and satisfactory, it is not improbable that we may tide safely over another year. Every one must, however, be prepared for the crash when it does occur, and constant provision to this effect cannot be too seriously enforced.

THE BOARD OF TRADE RETURNS.

On Thursday the returns of the Board of Trade were issued for the month ended the 31st of January last. We subjoin a statement of the total declared value of the exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures during the month in the last three years:—

	For the month.
1862	£8,439,055
1863	8,045,155
1864	10,413,586

THE Bank Court rose without making any change in the value of money. The applications were exceedingly moderate. In the discount market the rates ruled from $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{3}{4}$. The Joint Stock Banks accepted $5\frac{1}{2}$ for their advances.

THE amount of gold sent into the Bank this week was £258,000. The total withdrawals, including the Brazilian shipment, was £411,000. There has been no fresh movement in silver.

ALL the markets for securities have been dull. The late settlements have passed over satisfactorily, but speculation has decreased. Consols for account are $91\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$.

MEXICAN, $42\frac{1}{2}$ to $43\frac{1}{2}$; Turkish Consolidés, $50\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$; Spanish Passives, $35\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$; Venezuela, 59 to 60; Greek, $22\frac{1}{2}$ to 23; and the Coupons, 10 to $10\frac{1}{2}$.

THE superabundance of Credit and Finance shares is producing a reaction in prices. They are generally lower all round. The manufacture of these undertakings is proceeding very rapidly.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS.

SIR JOHN ELIOT.*

THIRTY years ago, Mr. Forster introduced in his "Statesmen of the Commonwealth" the first biographical sketch which is known to exist of one whom Mr. Hallam has characterized as "the most illustrious confessor in the cause of liberty whom that time produced." During the intervening period, the history of our revolutionary era has been far more carefully studied than had been previously the case. Great writers, amongst whom the author of the present work is conspicuous, have treated either the whole or parts of the subject. Family papers have been ransacked for any information they might afford with regard to the characters and deeds of the men who took part in that long constitutional struggle which consolidated and secured our liberties. The stores of valuable papers which rotted unheeded in the Public Record offices have been rendered accessible to historical inquirers; and it may fairly be said that our present knowledge of the most important epoch in our national history stands, to the knowledge possessed by the writers of thirty years ago, almost in the relation of light to darkness. There was, however, still much to be done by an indefatigable student of the Stuart period. In the form of a biography of Sir John Eliot, Mr. Forster has given us a new history of the last Parliaments of James I. and of the first Parliaments of Charles I. His labours have been greatly assisted by the papers of Sir John Eliot, which the noble descendant of the illustrious patriot—the Earl of St. Germans—placed unreservedly at his disposal. Some idea of their value may be formed when we state that they include between two and three hundred letters, forming part of the correspondence between Sir John Eliot and the other popular leaders; that they comprise an elaborate memoir written by Eliot; that they furnish far more ample reports of his own speeches, and of those of the other principal parliamentary speakers, than were previously known to exist; and that, finally, they contain, "with other interesting fragments found after Eliot's death on his person, touching personal appeals in vindication of the course pursued by him, intended for a later time, and notes for a speech against the violation of the public liberties by his imprisonment, which he proposed to have spoken in the Parliament which did not meet until he had been eight years in his grave." Mr. Forster has made an admirable use of these materials, as well as of those which he has discovered amongst the historical papers in the Record-office. He has not only produced a biography which does full justice to its hero, but has added to our historical literature a contribution of sterling value.

John Eliot was the son of a Cornish squire, and was born at Port Eliot in 1590. His youth was rather irregular, and it was marked by an incident which some of the Royalist writers under the later Stuarts, who were subsequently followed by the elder Disraeli, have much misrepresented to his disadvantage. He is charged by them with having gone to the house of a Mr. Moyle, against whom he had a grudge, and treacherously stabbed him while he was turning on one side to drink a glass of wine to his guest. Mr. Forster, however, shows that the odious part of this story is entirely without foundation. Eliot did, it is true, draw his sword upon Moyle in the course of an altercation—an occurrence certainly not unusual in those times; but there is no authority for the imputation of treachery, and a letter written by Moyle's daughter states not only that he immediately repented the violence of which he had been guilty, but that her father became "so entirely reconciled to him that no person in his time held him in higher esteem." He subsequently became a member of Exeter College, Oxford, and was afterwards called to the Bar. Travelling abroad, as was then the custom of young men of fortune, he met and formed the acquaintance of George Villiers, the future Duke of Buckingham. An intimacy sprang up between them, which had an important bearing on a portion of Eliot's career. His marriage, which took place after his return to England in 1611, is the subject of another of Mr. Disraeli's reckless misrepresentations. As an instance of the turbulence and "ungovernable passion" of the future Parliamentary leader, this unscrupulous writer alleges that he was fined by the Court of Wards £4,000 for carrying off the daughter of a country gentleman by force. The truth is that Sir John Eliot did not marry the lady in question; and that, if any act of the kind mentioned ever took place, it was committed by one of his sons. There is every reason to believe that after the unfortunate affair with Moyle his private was as free as his public life from stain or reproach. Upon public life he soon entered—sooner, indeed, than we were aware of until the appearance of the present work. It had been supposed that he sat for the first time in the Parliament of 1623; but the Port Eliot papers show that he was a member, though it is believed a silent one, of the assembly which met in 1614. In 1619, Villiers, then Marquis of Buckingham, was made Lord High Admiral of England, and he soon afterwards appointed his old travelling companion, Eliot, Vice-Admiral of Devon. This office was at that time one of great power and influence, and also one of great responsibility. Its duties seem to have been discharged by Sir John with great energy and public spirit. His activity, indeed, involved him in serious embarrassment. Having arrested a pirate named Nutt, who was protected by one of the most influential members of the council, the man actually had the audacity to accuse his captor of complicity in his crimes. Upon

this charge, the Vice-Admiral was committed to the Marshalsea, where he remained some time. Whether he was at last released by the interposition of the Lord Admiral does not appear; but it is quite clear that a letter which he subsequently wrote to his Grace as his official superior does not in any way bear out the charge of subservience to the King's favourite, which Mr. Disraeli has attempted to fasten upon this portion of his life. There was nothing in his conduct as Vice-Admiral inconsistent with the independent opposition which he subsequently offered as a member of Parliament to the unconstitutional projects and policy of the Duke.

We have dwelt at some length upon the early life of Eliot, because calumny has been busy with it; and it is important to show the entire consistency of his career. Henceforth we must confine ourselves principally to his actions as a public man. Returned to the Parliament of 1623 as member for Newport, he immediately assumed a perfectly independent position, and took from the first an active share in debate. The match between Prince Charles and the Infanta having been broken off, a portion of the country party had come to some sort of understanding with Buckingham, who was now, like themselves, eager for a war with Spain, and professed to share their desire to lend an armed support to the Protestant cause in Europe. They were anxious—no doubt this was a part of their treaty with the favourite—that "the differences which broke out between the Crown and the House of Commons in the Parliament of 1620, and in especial the famous protest in defence of their privileges, torn from their journals by the King's own hand, should not for the present be revived." Eliot, on the other hand, was determined that this protest should not be dropped, and, in spite of much opposition from those who might have been expected to support him, he obtained the appointment of a committee to consider the liberties and privileges of the House, and devise some way to maintain them in time to come. He appears to have at once become a leading member, and it was in no slight degree due to his influence that the Commons granted the large supply demanded by the King for the purposes of the war against Spain. In the debates upon the impeachment of the Lord Treasurer of Middlesex for malversation, he made a powerful speech; and he supported strenuously the bill for abolishing monopolies and prohibiting "impositions"—that is, arbitrary augmentations by the Crown of the customs duties imposed by the statute of tonnage and poundage. One of his speeches on the latter subject contains an admirable argument in favour of free-trade. The Parliament was ultimately prorogued in order to prevent their interfering to prevent the matrimonial alliance between the Prince of Wales and the Princess Henrietta of France, which was then secretly under negotiation. Eliot returned to the discharge of his duties as Vice-Admiral, and busied himself in active preparation for the war with Spain. He soon, however, ceased to have any intimate or friendly relations, even of an official kind, with Buckingham. He corresponded, not with the Lord Admiral, but with the Secretary of State; the Duke's interests as head of the Admiralty were placed in other hands; and, so far as we know, the two men never met but as political opponents, except in one final and memorable interview, to which we shall presently have to call attention.

No portion of Mr. Forster's work is more valuable than that which relates to the two first Parliaments of the reign of Charles I. The memoir which has been discovered amongst Sir John Eliot's papers contains a complete narrative of the proceedings of those assemblies; it lays bare the grounds and motives of action of the popular leaders; it exposes, in a manner not hitherto done, the designs and the intrigues of Buckingham and the King; and it supplies us with an animated picture of the commencement of that long strife between monarch and people which was destined to terminate on a scaffold outside Whitehall, in the January of 1649. The memoir which furnishes the basis of the history of this period now before us, is illustrated by reports (derived also from the archives of Port Eliot), far more copious than we previously possessed, of all the most memorable speeches delivered during these two Parliaments—reports which present to us the principal men of those times with a vividness and a completeness which we should seek in vain in any previous publication. From an account of the disputed election for the county of York, we gain a fresh insight into the arbitrary temper and overbearing character of Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, and discover how early in his career Eliot learned to distrust this able and unprincipled man. We also learn why, in the opinion of a man like Eliot, singularly free from fanaticism and intolerance, it is a matter of the first importance to resist any concessions to the Church of Rome. As Mr. Forster truly remarks:—

"Religion was not then a thing apart from but essentially mixed up with politics. There had been no attempt of the ministers of the Reformed Church to bring back the superstition and revive the tyranny of Rome, which had not also marked some corresponding decline in the government of the State, or malpractices in the Ministers of the Crown; while it had ever been accompanied by persecution and injustice to men who upheld what they believed to be the purity of teaching and doctrine."

Perhaps, however, the most important point satisfactorily established by these papers is the groundlessness of that charge of niggardliness which has been often brought by the partizans of Charles against his first Parliament. It has been said that, after the preceding Parliament had forced the Crown into a war, it was at least ungracious at the commencement of a new reign to

* Sir John Eliot: a Biography; 1590—1632. By John Forster. Two vols. London: Longmans.

limit to one year the grant of tonnage and poundage, which previous Sovereigns had enjoyed for life. But this accusation falls to the ground when it is shown that the Tonnage and Poundage Bill was not introduced until three-fourths of the members, alarmed by the ravages of the plague, had quitted town after voting the supplies which were asked of them; and that the limitation to one year was only adopted as a temporary measure, until questions arising out of a proposed new book of rates could be deliberately considered. The truth is, that the mode in which this bill was presented to the House of Commons was part of a scheme of Buckingham's to dispense with Parliament altogether. A large fleet was then preparing which was avowedly designed to act against Spain; but he and his master really intended to direct it against the Huguenots. It was well known that nothing could be more distasteful to the people; and it became, therefore, necessary to get rid of parliamentary interference. For that reason, after the King had graciously accepted the supply already granted, an attempt was made to extort from the few members remaining in town this additional vote. The attempt was unsuccessful, but some of the other Ministers were so much alarmed at the policy which it indicated, that they actually prevailed upon Eliot to wait upon the Duke and remonstrate with him. His arguments were in vain; but, towards the close of their conference, Buckingham betrayed his designs in a single significant sentence:—"The proposition," he said, "must proceed without consideration of success; wherein was lodged this project *meerlie to be denied*." The hint was not lost upon him to whom it was addressed.

Apparently in the hope that the members already scattered over England could not again be readily assembled, Parliament was hastily adjourned on the 11th of July, to meet at Oxford on the 1st of August. In the mean time, the secret designs of the King had been made apparent by an attempt to employ a part of the fleet against the French Protestants, who then held Rochelle. Moreover, certain pardons granted to Jesuits had aroused the religious jealousy of the people. Parliament re-assembled in a suspicious and even hostile frame of mind. Their suspicions were still further excited by the extraordinary smallness of the demands at first made upon them. They could not understand why they had been brought together at so short an interval, and at so much inconvenience, to vote a sum of £40,000, which was all that was demanded:—

"All believ'd," says Eliot, "the preparation would be left, nor ships nor men be drawn further in the imploiment; that the studie was how to impute itt to the Parliament, so that either their counsell or denial should be an occasion to dissolve it; and that some color onlie was sought for the satisfaction of the world, that, whatever did occur, a cause might be in readinesse, and, if the reason pres't it, a faire excuse at hand."

The intention, no doubt, was to make the Parliament apparently responsible for the failure of a war upon which the heart of the nation was set. But the popular leaders were not to be ensnared. They did not decline to grant the additional subsidy, but, after more than one debate, in which Sir Edward Coke and Sir John Eliot bore a principal part, they determined to follow the course pointed out by constitutional precedent, and present to the King a demand for the redress of grievances before entering upon the consideration of the money vote. As soon as they had arrived at that decision, their deliberations were terminated by an abrupt dissolution.

The King determined, if possible, to break the strength of the popular phalanx in the next Parliament. With that view, several of the leaders—amongst whom were Philip Seymour, Coke, and Wentworth—were pricked for sheriffs, in order to disqualify them from being returned as members by their own counties. But Eliot was not left alone, for he had around him, amongst others, Pym, Glanville, Selden, and Hampden. These eminent men seem, however, to have tacitly yielded to him that first place which he had won by his sagacity, vigour, and eloquence. He was not long in throwing down the gauntlet to the Court. Since the previous Parliament had been dissolved, the British fleet and army had returned from a disastrous expedition against Cadiz. The Duke of Buckingham's malversations in his office of High Admiral had become more conspicuous than ever; increased favour had been bestowed upon Papists, and Protestants who resembled Papists; the revenues of the State had been squandered; and places and honours had been lavished on the creatures and dependents of the favourite. Such were the topics upon which Sir John insisted, while enforcing upon Parliament, within a few days of their meeting, the duty of demanding a redress of grievances before voting supply. But he felt that the time had now come for something more than talking. He remembered, no doubt, what had fallen from Buckingham at their last meeting. If any good was to be done, he saw that his Grace must be removed from the place he occupied in the King's council. Upon the proceedings with regard to the Duke's impeachment, Mr. Forster has been enabled to throw much additional light. There can be no doubt that this decisive step was mainly due to Eliot, and the documents here printed show with what care and labour he prepared the articles of accusation. They show also "that Hampden, though he took no prominent public part as yet, and his name has never been connected with the prosecution of Buckingham, was ardently engaged in it as Eliot's friend and counsellor." Our space will not allow us to follow the course of this transaction, or to do more than allude to the splendid speech with which Sir John, who spoke last of the Commons' managers, summed up the charges at the bar of the House of Lords. We

must, however, find room for Mr. Forster's judicious and certainly not exaggerated estimate of his powers as an orator:—

"In Eliot's general style of speaking, the reader will by this time have remarked, there were few of those ornate and involved periods common to the time, and distinguishing not a few of its weightiest speakers. His vivacity was equal to his earnestness, yet never so displayed as to detract from it. He had in great perfection some of the highest qualities of an orator, singular power of statement, clearness and facility in handling details, pointed classical allusion, keen and logical argument, forcible and rich declamation; but in none of these does he at any time seem, however briefly, to indulge merely for its own sake. All are subordinated to the design and matter in hand. The subject is the master with him, and the rest are servants. The result is an impression from all his speeches as of reading a thing not external or apart from him, but one with himself, a phase or development of his nature. Each was spoken for a purpose, and the purpose is always paramount. Nothing is so rare, or so decisive of the highest order of speaking, as this interpenetration of every part of a speech by the subject to which it relates; so that nothing diverges from it, nothing interrupts it, and the grasp is never let go. It was in Eliot's case *character*. As he acted, he spoke; and when once he had fastened on the object of his wrath or his desire, he kept firm and never quitted his hold."

An allusion in this speech excited the vehement indignation of the King. Eliot had compared Buckingham to Sejanus. When this reference was reported to the King "implicitly," he exclaimed, "He must intend me for Tiberius!" On the following day, the intrepid speaker was arrested while in his place in the House of Commons. But that assembly stood firmly by its leader; and the King was compelled to release Eliot, who returned to his seat in order to urge the preparation of a solemn remonstrance against the misgovernment of the kingdom. It was voted; but its presentation to the King was arrested by another sudden dissolution. Immediately afterwards, an attempt (now for the first time revealed) was made by the Attorney-General to ascertain, first from the Secret Committee who had been entrusted with the conduct of the impeachment against Buckingham, and afterwards from Eliot alone, the nature of the evidence on which they relied. Speaking both for the committee and himself, Eliot's answer was the same—a refusal to answer any questions relating to proceedings in Parliament. The dissolution, of course, put an end to the impeachment; but it was thought advisable, for the purpose of vindicating the Duke's character, to go through the farce of a sham prosecution and a sham defence in the Star Chamber. Here, for the present we must stop; but we shall take an early opportunity of resuming our notice of this interesting and valuable work.

MR. HERBERT SPENCER'S ESSAYS.*

THE practice which has grown so common of republishing in an enlarged and corrected form the articles that have been contributed anonymously to periodicals is attended with many advantages. An author is likely to form his opinions on any subject with far greater care, and to express them with much greater precision, if he purposes hereafter to put them forth under his own name in a durable form, and prepared to encounter the criticism which as mere occasional articles in a review they very seldom incur. And readers benefit scarcely less than writers. Few persons peruse a review in a magazine with as much attention as when they have, perhaps, the same paper before them, together with others by the same author, collected in a separate volume. Besides, every one does not see even the leading reviews regularly, and, were it not for the frequent republication of the better articles contributed to such periodicals, these last would do a positive injury to the literature of the day by giving a fugitive character and interest to thoughts which otherwise would have been put forth in a more permanent and elaborate shape. Such papers as Mr. John Stuart Mill contributed to the *Edinburgh* and *Westminster Reviews* would have lost more than half their value had they remained buried in the old numbers of those publications, and not re-appeared in a new dress, as "Dissertations and Discussions," from the pen of their gifted author. We do not hold Mr. Herbert Spencer's contributions to the *Quarterlies* to be of the same worth or interest as those of Mr. Mill; but every one who is acquainted with Mr. Spencer's previous publications, especially his "First Principles," must feel him to be a man of great philosophical power and wide scientific attainments, always having something to say which must command, if not our assent and sympathy, at all events our attention and respect. In 1858 he issued a first series of Essays republished from various magazines, and written originally with a view to republication; he has now put out a second volume of a similar kind, containing ten papers that have already appeared as articles in the *Westminster*, *British Quarterly*, and other periodicals. They treat of the most different topics, opening with the "Nebular Hypothesis," and closing with the "Morals of Trade;" but they are all supposed to illustrate more or less directly a favourite doctrine of Mr. Spencer's, which he terms the "Law of Evolution," or development from the simple and indefinite to the complex and finite, and which he seems to value as a key capable of unlocking all the mysteries in every domain of science, speculative or practical, except, perhaps, the greatest mystery of all—the original source from

* Essays; Scientific, Political, and Speculative. Second Series. By Herbert Spencer, Author of "Social Statics," &c. Reprinted from the *Quarterly Reviews*. London: Williams & Norgate.

which the development began. For this there is no room in our author's philosophy; he is disposed to be curious about every cause—except the First.

Our general readers would not thank us, perhaps, for detailing the evidences by which Mr. Spencer proves the solar system to have evolved itself from a formless aggregation of diffused matter by a gradual concentration towards its centre of gravity. Nor, in fact, will our space allow us to dwell (at least with any justice to our author's views) on the more special and technical of his essays. They all show a thorough grasp of the subjects which they treat, and the language of most of them appears to us less tinged with obscurity, especially in the way of illustration, than some of Mr. Spencer's previous writings. The criticism on Mr. Bain's "Analysis of the Emotions and the Will" is, we think, particularly valuable, and in the compass of a very few pages are set forth the principal defects of that otherwise excellent book, together with some masterly suggestions of a more complete method on which the subject should be handled. But we pass on to notice some of Mr. Spencer's views on social and political subjects. Upon these he writes in something of the same strain as Mr. Mill, though we often miss the temperate statement and judicial fairness, and (when we come across such phrases as "honouring muffs" and "practising injustices") we may add, the dignified expression and pure style, of the author of the "System of Logic."

In his essay on "Representative Government, what is it good for?" Mr. Spencer passes some severe strictures on the House of Commons, its composition, its qualifications, and its work. It contains too many members or connections of the aristocracy, too many professional men, such as lawyers and officers,—in a word, too many representatives from classes having interests different from those of the general public. Then, again, these have not received the education necessary for the work of legislation. Mr. Spencer has particular theories about education, upon which he has written a book; and he pronounces that a knowledge of the science of life is indispensable for all who have to make regulations for society. This he considers a great defect in our legislators. They may be great mathematicians, they may be great scholars, or (as he contemptuously puts it) they may "have memories well stocked with the words talked two thousand years ago;" but if they are not Biologists or Sociologists, Mr. Spencer will have nothing to say to them. Last of all, he complains that with the minimum of legislative intelligence they have the maximum of legislative work; our Governments expatiate in too wide a field; they aim to control and direct the entire national life, to preach a religion, teach knowledge, administer poor-laws, promote emigration, enforce vaccination, supply artists' models, and a thousand things beside. Now, all this is far beyond the capacity even of men who have graduated in social science; moreover, it contradicts the doctrine of evolution, by which functions tend to become limited and specialized; and therefore the first remedy proposed is to bring back government to its original and essential office—viz., the protection of its subjects against aggression. This is within the capacities of a representative government, which our author pronounces to be "good for protection, but bad for regulation." If the nation is in a state to require of its rulers more than this enactment and enforcement of the simple principles of equity, then it is unfit for representative government; it must put down its House of Commons, and elect a paternal despot. "By all means, choose that system of complete centralization which we call despotism." It is not for us to defend our representative institutions against their philosophical critics; but we must say that it would be no easy matter to satisfy these last. While our legislators are scolded by Mr. Carlyle for doing too little,—for their "government by *laissez faire*,"—they are lectured by Mr. Herbert Spencer for doing too much—for taking on themselves "to provide for countless wants, to cure countless ills, to oversee countless affairs." While one calls upon them to leave education, emigration, and all such processes, to work out themselves, the other adjures them, in the name of all the veracities, to provide an effective teaching service and emigration service, besides any amount of time bills, factory bills, sanitary regulations, and the like. For ourselves, we imagine that this question of the aim, province, and limits of government will provide the philosophers with food for discussion through a great many years to come. That the perfection of government is to train citizens for governing themselves—that in the end "the best government is the least"—we should probably concur with Mr. Herbert Spencer in believing; but to suggest, as a means to this, the immediate reduction of our government to a police—the casting adrift of all institutions for securing health, knowledge, temperance, and religion, and leaving these to be controlled, as best they may, by town councillors and ten-pound householders (of whom, at the same time, our author expresses the lowest opinion)—betrays, it appears to us, very dangerous results from the study of social science. We trust that there are other conclusions to be derived from the "universal law of organization," upon which Mr. Spencer seems a better judge in its application to bodies physical than to bodies political.

We must not close this notice without inviting attention to the last of our author's essays on "The Morals of Trade." It presents a sad picture of the commercial ethics of the nineteenth century pervading all ranks from the highest to the lowest. Mr. Spencer evidently speaks with authority; he has conversed with men engaged in business, and has traced the evil as it exists in the several branches of trade. He supplies the minutest details as to the modes of trickery and mendacity almost universally practised and cultivated no less in wholesale houses than in the smallest retail-shops. "A piece of calico nominally 36 yards long, never

measures more than 31 yards; it is understood throughout the trade to measure only this." Silk laces called 6 quarters or 54 inches, really measure 4 quarters or 36 inches. Fringe, which is sold wrapped on card, will be often found 2 inches wide at the end exposed to view, but will diminish to 1 inch at the end next the card; or perhaps the first 20 yards will be good, and all the rest hidden under it will be bad. One of Mr. Spencer's informants was obliged to give up his position in a large shop because he could not lower himself to the required depth of degradation. "You don't lie as though you believed what you say," observed one of his fellow assistants; and this was uttered as a reproach. The upshot of the matter seems to be, that, while the *great* and *direct* frauds have been diminishing, the *small* and *indirect* frauds have been increasing, alike in variety and in number. Mr. Spencer has some good remarks on the probable causes which contribute to this lamentable state of things. Especially in his sketch of the "Indiscriminate Respect paid to Wealth," to which he ascribes much of the evil, rather than to the more superficial causes of the increased difficulty of living, the craving for cheapness, and so forth, he has touched with much acuteness on the dominant weakness of the society of our day. In this, as in all Mr. Spencer's writings which we have read, there is the same high purpose and intensity of moral view which makes us welcome him as one of our great social teachers. Self-devotion to higher ends than the accumulation of wealth is the doctrine which he always insists on; it is the principle of the new and better chivalry of which he already discerns the rise, and out of which, true to his law of evolution, he foresees the development of a higher standard of honour tending to ameliorate many other evils besides the immoralities of trade.

INSANITY AND CRIME.*

THE Editors of the *Journal of Mental Science* have given, in an essay intended for that periodical, but published by anticipation in the form of a pamphlet, a tolerably clear statement of the medical points for consideration in the Townley case, under the heads of—1. Intellectual Insanity (*Monomanie intellectuelle* of Esquirol); 2. Moral Insanity (*Monomanie raisonnée* of Esquirol); 3. Impulsive or Instinctive Insanity (*Monomanie affective* of Esquirol—*Manie sans délire* of Pinel). These terms are objected to as ill-chosen, but they are employed as current modes of description. As regards the first kind of insanity, the conclusion is that Townley was not afflicted with any form of it. As to the second, which it is stated frequently accompanies intellectual aberration, and is in the majority of cases connected with hereditary taint, the conclusion is that the evidence of moral insanity is singularly deficient, while the signs of moral *depravity* are very positive. The alleged moral insanity, say the Editors, was discovered after the crime by Dr. Winslow, upon whom they fall with abundant sneers for supposing that "an extreme moral insanity sprang up, like Jonah's gourd, in a single night," and ask "on what grounds we are to admit this miraculous development." Indeed, the tone in which a brother expert in the same mysterious subject of medical research is spoken of throughout the pamphlet, is one with which we can feel no sympathy. That Dr. Winslow overstrained his perception, and suffered himself to some extent to be deceived by Townley, we have throughout maintained. That he was mistaken altogether as to the man's insanity has been generally admitted since the searching inquiry and the decision arrived at so unanimously. But cases of such inexpressible importance to society are not to be turned into lampoons between rival "mad doctors." It is, indeed, this which is most constantly asserted throughout the pamphlet before us; and yet, after all, the Editors are obliged to admit that they "would not overlook the fact that, in the future, insanity may possibly be developed in this man of low moral powers and alleged hereditary taint, now subjected to all the horrors of remorse in the solitariness of penal servitude." If, however, the seeds of insanity are there, it must be a question whether the man's future abode should not have been Bedlam rather than Pentonville—a place where, at some sudden impulse, his low moral powers and hereditary taint might lead him to use his penknife on a fellow-prisoner.

Under the guidance of opinion like this, the question arises whether the disputes of the experts in a science of observation would not often, as in Townley's case, result in very serious mischief in shielding an undoubted murderer—in causing the hand of justice to waver and hesitate where a common-sense jury would have decided rightly. We state this as showing how utterly vague are the lines of demarcation which medical mental science is enabled to lay down, and how little we are justified in calling that a science, and relying upon it to reform our laws, which deals with phenomena infinitely less comprehensible than those of life in its most complex form. The Editors adopt the action of a psychological process which is called *ideomotor*—that is to say, an idea may move the will to murder, and this idea is said to be *morbid*; but we should like to understand how far morbidity goes along with immorality. According to this theory, Townley's morality may be said to be so low that it was absolutely morbid, and his act an "ideomotor"—one of sudden morbid impulse. The Editors may well, indeed, speak of the antagonism that exists between law and medicine; for it is clear that we need, for sustaining the hand of justice, some balancing power, a little more substantial than mental science

* Insanity and Crime. A Medico-Legal Commentary on the Case of George Victor Townley. By the Editors of the *Journal of Mental Science*. London: Churchill & Sons.

affords. They try to throw obloquy upon the opinion of the Lord Chancellor as the legal guardian of lunatics, because he refused their ideal of perfection when he said, in his speech to the House of Lords (March 11, 1862), "Judges and juries should form their own moral conclusions; it was not necessary that a man should have studied the subject of insanity in order to form a conclusion whether a man was or was not a lunatic." Notwithstanding the magnificent figure of speech which the Editors fire off at the Lord Chancellor—viz., that even he will not "succeed in putting back the hand of scientific progress on the dial-plate of time,"—we find it hard to see how the Home-office is to be blamed when in fact it was in this very instance of Townley that it operated, in conjunction with medical advisers, in righting the course of justice, which had been diverted through the influence of the same science, as it is called. The Editors proceed to advocate a change in the law, to bring it "into accordance with the state of knowledge in insanity." But can we regard the doctors of medicine as fit to legislate upon a subject, the law of which, though they claim it as their own province, they have not yet discovered? Indeed, it would appear extremely doubtful if the time will ever arrive when they will be capable of giving us that "righteous law which shall be an expression of a higher social development." It is undoubtedly desirable that a stop should be put to the *reductio ad absurdum* we have to notice in every trial of suspected poisoning or insanity, which is so elaborately brought about by the ingenious aid of counsel doubly learned in the law and medicine. The following remarks upon this point are worth quoting:—

"The remedy is an obvious one; it is to make the medical witnesses in matters of science witnesses, not for the prosecution or the defence, but witnesses called by the court itself. Then would their evidence be freed from all suspicion of advocacy, and gain the authority in which it is now wanting. In France, when a criminal is suspected to be insane, the court appoints a commission of medical men, or selects one man experienced in mental diseases, to examine into the case, and to report upon it; the whole life of the prisoner and the present symptoms are investigated, and the questions put, and the answers to them are recorded for the information of the court."

We have already the machinery for this in the Lunacy Commissioners and the medical advisers in Chancery; and in all criminal cases involving medical questions there might be a similar exercise of medical jurisprudence, through a body of medical men specially qualified for the office. This would effectually put a period to the endless disputes and vague speculations of the medical experts, of which this pamphlet is itself a notable example.

MIDDLE CLASS EDUCATION.*

POWERFULLY impressed by the deficient education of the middle class, and especially of the agricultural section of that class, Earl Fortescue has for several years devoted much care and thought to the consideration of some means for raising the standard of intellectual culture among farmers, tradesmen, and others on the same level. Upwards of ten years ago,—viz., in 1853,—Prebendary Brereton, a valued friend of his lordship (then Viscount Ebrington), threw out a suggestion for the establishment of county schools and universities. This idea struck the noble lord as offering the best opportunity of any scheme he had examined for effecting the objects he had in view; but it was not until 1858 that an attempt was made to set the project practically on foot. In that year, the late Earl Fortescue, having previously taken the opinion of the Devonshire farmers at an agricultural dinner, and obtained from them assurances of co-operation, offered the gratuitous use for a time of a small farm, with its house and buildings, to try the experiment; and Viscount Ebrington, as an additional inducement, promised to guarantee the salary of a master for one year. Certain modifications were afterwards introduced into these arrangements; but the school (with the farm attached) was opened in November, 1858, with only three boys. The number increased by the following Easter to eleven boys, of whom all but one were boarders; and by last Christmas there were as many as seventy scholars—fifty-five boarders and fifteen day boys. The scheme has by this time developed itself into "the Devon County School Association, with its handsome building and surrounding freehold play-fields, the substantial result of an investment of some £6,000." The present Lord Fortescue, who now publishes this record of the undertaking, is of opinion that county schools, colleges, and universities, framed somewhat on the Devon model, will afford the best means of extending, widening, and improving, the education of our English middle classes. The example, he says, has already been followed in other counties.

"Our success, therefore, has been so far beyond my fondest hopes, that I no longer despair of the ultimate accomplishment of the rest of our plan, and of living to witness the establishment of county colleges and a county university. For a public system of education, that is, a system public, not private, in its objects, aiming at the benefit of its scholars rather than the gain of its conductors, if complete, ought to act at once as a test and stimulus, and possess a power of regulating, by steps or degrees, its own course of instruction, of certifying attainment, and of signaling and encouraging merit. This power may be lodged either in a self-governing corporate body, such as a University, or in an established external authority, such as the Committee of the

Privy Council. There can, however, be little doubt which of the two, the corporate or bureaucratic, would be most acceptable to the middle classes. They would unhesitatingly prefer an institution in which much guidance, support, encouragement, and honour might indeed be received, and that gratefully, from the higher classes; but in which the chief management, the examinations to be undergone, the degrees conferred, the rewards assigned, would be regulated by the members of the body, enjoying the privileges and powers implied in the word University. In the governing body, however, reasonable security should be taken, at least at the outset, for the introduction of a sufficient number of persons with minds expanded by the fuller and more liberal education which the more advanced age, and consequent average state of knowledge of their students, enable the old Universities to afford."

The studies in the first and second classes of the Devon County School comprise scripture, history, geography, English grammar, analysis of sentences, English composition, writing from dictation, arithmetic, algebra, Euclid, music, Latin, French, and German. In the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth classes, the course is less inclusive and severe. The plan of combining with the school a sort of model farm, for the instruction of the boys in practical agriculture, has been found unworkable, and is therefore abandoned. Earl Fortescue now proposes to extend the system by the establishment of colleges (which would, of course, still further develop the education already commenced in the schools), and of universities possessing charters, with power to confer degrees.

Such a university, he urges, need not at the outset have any central abode. Its professors and teachers might from time to time go round to the various county schools and colleges, examining the pupils, and granting distinctions. The prefix "County" should form part of the title of all these establishments, and their direction and maintenance should have a specific county basis; for Earl Fortescue is strongly opposed to the recent centralizing tendencies in education, and wishes to see the training of our youth more in the hands of local centres of management. While acknowledging the good that has been effected by the Oxford and Cambridge middle-class examinations, he does not think they supply all that is wanted, and, for various reasons, he doubts their permanence. He accordingly looks to the schools, colleges, and universities he now proposes, for affording to the middle classes an educational superiority over the lower orders commensurate with the existing superiority of the aristocracy over the grade immediately below. His lordship, we may here observe, is a doughty advocate for maintaining in full force the distinctions of class. He would have foreign languages taught in the county schools, partly because it would give the middle classes a marked superiority over the poorer orders, whose education in the State-supported schools is already, Earl Fortescue seems to think, undesirably close upon that of the agricultural and trading body; and for the same reason he regrets to find that of late years, owing to the reduction of expense and the elevation of the average standard of education at the great universities, so many of the middle class are being admitted, and so many of the higher class excluded, "as sensibly to lower the general tone and social position" of those institutions.

The State-supported schools of the humble find little favour in Earl Fortescue's eyes. He thinks that persons of middle station would feel degraded at receiving their education on similar principles; and he particularly objects to the Government schools for the training of masters and teachers. The system, he argues, interferes with the general laws of supply and demand, and artificially raises up a class of men with acquirements above the natural level of their rank. Hence arises a kind of professional pedantry, together with a want of those general social acquirements which are necessary to success in life. The Earl professes to be in favour of training schools when properly constituted; but he is opposed to making them "practically Government establishments, deriving from three-fourths to nine-tenths of their support from the taxes of the community." He adds:—

"To this circumstance, quite as much as to the professional uniformity, and generally very humble parentage of their *alumni*, I suppose they owe their notorious unpopularity with the middle classes, and their too appropriate nickname of Protestant Maynooths. The strongest proof that can be given of the extent of this unpopularity, and of the degradation implied in the eyes of that independent class, may be found in the significant fact that though the profession of national schoolmaster is, in comparison with the places open to the younger sons of Devon farmers, unquestionably well paid, yet these lads not only shrink from entering the training school—where they would get gratis a good education, with an assurance of after employment—but, to my knowledge, have positively refused offers of a good appointment of this kind—not because they felt, much less were, unequal to the duties, but distinctly on the ground that, both to themselves and their families, it involved loss of grade. And, what made the case stronger, they at the same time, I have reason to believe, would gratefully have accepted what pecuniarily would have been, and in my opinion ought to be considered, inferior situations."

His lordship believes that the present training colleges might be turned into county colleges; and that to the educational institutions thus maintained by the several shires the Government might safely leave the maintenance of all purely educational examinations applicable to the civil service, with the exception of any special tests necessary to the discharge of particular duties.

This is not the place to enter into the discussion of Lord Fortescue's views. We have contented ourselves with simply stating them, being confident that the opinions of so liberal and

* Public Schools for the Middle Classes. By Earl Fortescue, Patron of the Devon County School; with an Appendix. London: Longman & Co.

accomplished a nobleman, long associated with the investigation of educational requirements and the means of supplying them, will be read with interest and judged with respect.

REMINISCENCES OF TRAVEL.*

RECOLLECTIONS of what one has seen during a holiday trip are often among the pleasantest contributions to light literature; but then the writers must be peculiarly gifted for the task, and the special qualifications necessary are less common than might be supposed. Heaviness on the one hand, and flippancy on the other, are fatal; and of the two authors now under review, one is open to the first charge, and the other to the second. Mr. Abrahall has written a book of travels in verse—a novel experiment, but one which we certainly cannot recommend for imitation. Having, in July, 1858, made a tour with his wife (we suppose it was the wedding trip, but he is modestly silent on that tender topic) among the “woods and waters” of Canada, he was inspired, by the wondrous beauty of all he saw, to the utterance of certain poetical effusions; and subsequent visits to the same region at later periods led to further rhapsodies, which have by this time grown into a good-sized volume. The author is evidently a gentleman of scholarly and well-cultured mind, with a genuine enthusiasm for the loveliness and grandeur of natural scenery; but we can hardly say that, among the various “Arts” of which he is “Master,” the art of poetry is one. He has been smitten by the wild melody of the strange, rhymeless Indian verse in which Longfellow composed his “Hiawatha,” and, having to treat of lands which still bear traces of the Red Man, he has adopted the same metre for the greater part of his work. The effect is in the last degree monotonous and wearisome; for, though the subtlety with which the American poet managed his lines made them charming even to English readers, the verse itself, we feel assured, is unfitted for our language, and Mr. Abrahall has not the skill to conceal its inherent defects. A few occasional pretty bits of description are but poor compensation for tedious details of progress from place to place, which could have been related a thousand times better in prose; and it requires very great merits indeed to reconcile us to a poem abounding in such frightful names as “Schkuee-archibi-kung,” “Missibeezi,” “Shahwoudahzy,” “Ninnibohzhoo,” “Kahministikwoya,” &c. Nor do we see what is gained by adopting the Red Indian puerilities of “Sun-god,” and “fire-boat” (steamer). There may be a certain kind of poetry in the expressions of barbarism; but it is vain to endeavour to reduce a highly civilized language to the level of savagery. We are sorry to be obliged to say all these things of Mr. Abrahall, for he has evidently applied himself to his poetical task with a hearty good will to succeed, if the thing could possibly be done by hard labour. It is quite bewildering to look at his book, it so bristles with notes upon notes, references to references, explanations which don’t very clearly explain, synopses, and appendices. He writes an introduction, which he divides into “1. A., a. b., a. β.,” and so on; and his prose is awful with the algebraical formula =. He adds a collection of annotations as long as the poems thus illustrated; he winds up with an index; and he throws in a map, with blue lines showing the border of the basin of the St. Lawrence, green lines indicating the political boundaries, and red lines tracing the course of the tour celebrated in the verses. Never, surely, was poetry ushered into the world with so much “useful knowledge” warranty. Mr. Abrahall goes at Parnassus as if he were proving the binomial theorem or squaring the circle. But he gives us some glimpses of a noble country very little known to Englishmen; and for the sake of these, his volume may be looked through with some advantage.

We can say absolutely nothing to the credit of our second author, who treats of the “western woods and waters” of our own island. Cornwall and Devon, though frequently described by able writers, are so full of interest that they might yet be made the subject of a charming book; but Mr. Mills is one of the very worst specimens of the smart, slangy, “knowing” class of scribblers. He writes in the style commonly, but not quite correctly, designated “cockney;” but he appears to belong to Bristol, and London has nothing to do with his vulgar familiarities, his pert self-sufficiency, his bad puns, and his worse English. His book is an example of the kind of chatter in which second-rate country newspapers delight; and readers of such journals may be pleased to hear Mr. Mills relate what beer he drank and what tobacco he smoked on his week’s excursion in Cornwall and Devon.

LECTURES TO YOUNG MEN.†

We alluded in a recent number to the excellent lectures delivered before the Dublin Young Men’s Christian Association; and we have now the pleasure of directing attention to a volume containing the series for 1863. The sterling character of the essays may be judged from the names of their authors, viz., the

* *Western Woods and Waters; Poems and Illustrative Notes.* By John Hoskyns-Abrahall, Jun., M.A., Incumbent of Combe Longa, Oxon, and late Fellow of Lincoln College, Oxford. With Map and Frontispiece. London: Longman & Co.

† *A Week’s Wanderings in Cornwall and Devon.* By Thomas H. Mills. London: Freeman. Bristol: Bingham.

† Lectures delivered before the Dublin Young Men’s Christian Association, in connection with the United Church of England and Ireland, during the year 1863. Dublin: Hodges, Smith, & Co.

Right Hon. James Whiteside, Q.C.; the Rev. William C. Magee, Prebendary of Clogher, and Rector of Enniskillen; the Right Hon. Joseph Napier, LL.D., ex-Lord Chancellor; the Rev. J. B. Owen, Incumbent of St. Jude’s, Chelsea; Sir Richard Graves Macdonnell, C.B., late Governor-in-Chief of South Australia; the Rev. A. K. H. Boyd, B.A., Minister of St. Bernard’s parish, Edinburgh; and the Rev. John Nash Griffin, M.A., Incumbent of Trinity Church, Dublin. Though a portion of the volume is dedicated to religious and theological subjects, as might be expected, considering the society for whose instruction and advantage the lectures were composed, there is no lack of variety in the subjects. These are—“The Life and Death of the Irish Parliament,” in two parts; “Scepticism;” “William Bedell,” Bishop of Kilmore in the seventeenth century; “Stereoscopic Views of Misunderstood Men;” “Australia;” “People of whom more might have been made;” and “Dr. Colenso and the Pentateuch.” The largest space devoted to any one subject is that which has been given to Mr. Whiteside, whose interesting sketch of the history of the Irish Parliament occupies rather more than 200 pages. From this we shall make a few extracts, for the amusement of our readers. Here are some curious particulars concerning the hours of assembling and the quarrelsome habits of the Irish Parliament:—

“The House of Lords preferred summer to winter; they met at nine in the morning and sat till night twelve, when they adjourned for dinner; and if business required it they met again in the afternoon. . . . Independently of the Acts of Settlement and Explanation, we had some useful and fundamental English Acts introduced and adopted here—as the Act for Abolition of Feudal Tenures, and the Act of Uniformity. During nearly thirty years no new law was passed: for a sufficient reason—there was no Parliament to pass them. Parliament was dissolved by what was called the fatal dissolution in 1666; and was never again summoned till after the Revolution in 1692. Parliamentary government in Ireland, therefore, during this long interval, was *in nubibus*, not *in terris*.

“What respect could the Government have had for such an institution? What confidence could the public have reposed in the members, or in their public spirit, when, for more than a quarter of a century, they were unseen, unheard, unnoticed? The fact is, there was no investigation of public accounts till after the Revolution, and the revenue was nearly stationary.

“The cause of this long parliamentary slumber is something so absurd as to make me blush to describe it. It arose from a contemptible squabble between the two Houses on points of idle etiquette and worthless ceremony. Conferences were common between the two Houses, it appears, about heads of bills and other matters; and the wisacres in the Commons fell to fighting with the wise heads in the Lords about sitting down, standing up—the place for the Commons to approach—whether the Peers should be allowed to sit covered, while the Commons were to be obliged to stand uncovered. It is astounding to read of such folly and vanity in grown men. In the time of Lord Strafford he got the stupid quarrel adjusted, by inducing the members to submit to the usage of the English Parliament, with which, as an old member of it, he was well acquainted. The great Duke of Ormonde, in 1666, tried to compose the dispute, while he decided that the Lords should sit covered, and the Commons stand uncovered. He besought them to agree and adopt the English practice. But no! agree they would not, nor yield, nor work; so, on the 7th of August in that year, the wise Duke sent them about their business by a formal dissolution; and as nobody cared to see the faces of such obstinate boobies again, the nation which tolerated such representatives never got the opportunity of re-electing them.”

For Ireland to be without a Parliament for many years together, seems in former times to have been a common occurrence; and it is stated by Grattan that, for almost two-thirds of a century preceding the year 1763, the tenure was during the life of the King. Mr. Whiteside, while admiring the splendid abilities of Grattan and other opponents of the Union, is of opinion that that measure was the only alternative to an entire separation of the two kingdoms, and that Ireland has been an immense gainer by the change. He tells a strange romance of the troublous times of 1796:—

“I have now to notice the only instance that I can find of a Protestant clergyman of the Church of England being a traitor, and he was one of the genuine stamp; but I am not sure he was a believer in the Christian religion. I allude to the celebrated Jackson. Jackson was sent over to this country, in 1796, from France, for the purpose of planning an invasion of this country by the French, and accomplishing the overthrow of the English Government in Ireland. Unfortunately for himself, when he got to London he fell in with an artful attorney, whose name was Cockayne. It was a great mistake to commit himself to a comparative stranger. Jackson brought his letters to Cockayne, to address to numerous correspondents. Cockayne found his neck getting a little uncomfortable, and said, ‘I don’t comprehend this man; he writes to persons in Germany, in France, in Ireland, and seems afraid to direct his letters in his own handwriting. I must take care.’ So he watched, and suspected Jackson was dabbling in treason. Now Cockayne was a man of business; so he waited on Mr. Pitt, and informed him that he had in his keeping a gentleman whom he suspected was an emissary of the French Directory, and engaged in revolutionary designs. Pitt told him to watch, and to continue the companion and fellow-traveller of Jackson, until he could be disposed of. Jackson and Cockayne came to Dublin. A hospitable Irishman invited them to dinner; a gentleman who was in the plot, but did not wish to be found out, being of the party. This gentleman was cautious in the presence of strangers. After dinner Cockayne seemed to be drowsy, retired to an arm-chair, and affected to fall asleep. But the servant was a smart Irishman; and looking closely at the man in the arm-chair, he saw Cockayne’s eyes glistening

through his fingers; so he touched his master, who followed him to the door—he, having heard the unpleasant fact, whispered it to his friend. The subject of conversation was instantly changed to the weather; the wary gentleman retired soon after, and Cockayne lost his prey. Jackson, of course betrayed by his attentive friend, was soon afterwards arrested, and on his person was found a most important paper upon the state of Ireland, written for the information of the Directory in France. In this remarkable document the inhabitants were divided into three classes: the Church Protestants, who were described to be in favour of England; the Dissenters, who were said to be enlightened Republicans; the bulk of the population, the Catholics, were stated to be in the lowest state of ignorance, and ready for any change, because no change could make them worse. The relative numbers of the different sects were wholly misstated or misunderstood: or else the condition of things in this respect is much changed for the better. The Dissenters were stated to be more numerous than the Churchmen, whereas now the Churchmen exceed in number all these denominations of Irish Protestants. Jackson was tried, found guilty of treason, but not sentenced to be executed. His wife, on the morning that he was brought down to court to receive sentence, visited him in prison, and gave him some tea. While proceeding in a carriage, he was observed to put his head out of the window, to be ghastly pale, and very sick. Arrived in court, and in the dock, he beckoned to his counsel, Curran, to whom he whispered, 'We have deceived the Senate.' When required by the officer of the Court, he held up his hand, but it fell feebly in a moment. The doctor was sent for, and the Judge inquired, 'Is the prisoner competent to hear the judgment of the Court?' The doctor replied, 'My Lord, he is dead!' Jackson had swallowed poison in his tea: the Judge could not sentence him; so his property was saved for his family. The Sheriff did not know what to do with the body of Jackson, and asked the distinguished Judge what he would do with it; but the Judge did not know more than the Sheriff, and therefore said, with infinite gravity, 'Mr. Sheriff, you will do as in such cases is usual.'

Sir R. G. Macdonnell's Lecture on Australia is full of that intimate knowledge of the subject which one who has occupied the position of Governor-in-Chief may reasonably be supposed to possess, and is accompanied by a map of the great Southern continent. A portrait of the Bishop of Cork (Dr. Gregg) is given as a frontispiece; and a Report of the Association for 1862-3—from which we learn that the body is still in a prosperous state—winds up the volume in the form of an appendix.

SUNSHINE AND SHADOWS.*

To those who are dissatisfied with what is called light literature, but which is frequently very heavy reading—who are not absorbed in the diluted politics of daily newspapers, but seek to occupy their minds with more substantial nutriment—these sketches of thought will assuredly be welcome. Though the author's mind may be said to be of a metaphysical cast, yet he does not pursue his speculations, as is the case with many so constituted, to that extent where the thread of thought becomes, by reason of its excessive tenuity, invisible to the mental eye. His writing is indicative and suggestive, rather than exhaustive, and is consequently both pleasant and profitable, being always engaged on those subjects which ought to commend themselves to every mind interested in the pursuit and acquisition of truth. Although absolute and complete truth may not be attainable, perhaps, in any science of a metaphysical nature, yet it is manifestly the pleasing duty of every mind of liberal training and tendencies to assimilate as much of it as possible. While, therefore, truths, moral, religious, philosophical, or scientific, may be of different degrees of value to different individual capacities, all are more or less concerned in the reception and just appreciation of them. The subjects discussed in this volume are eminently interesting in their nature and various in their character: such are—to enumerate only a few—Search after Truth; Microcosm, or Structure and Development of Man; Mind in its Physical Relations; Philosophy of Thought; Progress and Limitation; Force of Character; Moral Alchemy; Theological Petrification; the Balance of Ill; Theories of Human Nature; Moral Riddles; the Principles and Bearings of Religious Induction; Cause and Effect, or the Law of Retribution; Breviaries on Divine Subjects, &c.

Without committing ourselves to the acceptance of all his views, we must yet give Mr. Clulow credit for the piety of his tone.

POEMS BY ELLINOR J. S. MAITLAND.†

RELIGION, an enthusiastic adoption of the sentiment of Italian unity, and an ardent admiration of ancient art, are among the principal topics upon which Miss Maitland has employed her pen. The religious poems are, some of them, founded upon Scriptural texts, amplified and applied to the mental state of the writer; such as the opening lines entitled "Bartimeus," "Rizpah," "Rebecca's Wooing," "Silence in Heaven," and "What is Truth?"

Other poems of a serious cast, such as the story of the death of Agrippina, taken from the history of Tacitus, and the legend of the martyrdom of Vivia Perpetua—the latter especially—are told in smooth, simple, unaffected rhymes, which are amongst the

author's happiest compositions. It is not to be expected that a lady's translations from Horace should be remarkable for fidelity to the original; and we will therefore pass these over as presenting no marked features of any kind.

In "A Vision of the Sun," the spirit of a dreamer on earth is supposed to pass out of the body, and soar into the supernal regions of the solar orb; and in this poem the writer shows a more vivid imagination and a more graphic style than in any other verses contained in this volume.

The small poem entitled "Double Stars" is a pleasing and fanciful specimen of the author's poetical talents:—

"DOUBLE STARS."

"A star once loved another star,
And sent a blue and tender light
Across the heaven's deep purple height
To the pale orb afar.

"Shrouded within a sapphire sea,
She watched, in sympathy, the gleam,
And her pure light glowed red to seem
Too conscious—loved to be.

"Bursting his orbit's narrow bound,
He shot through that vast living space
A meteor—darting from his place,
Till in blue ether drowned.

"And soon where one was wont to shine
Two blissful stars for ever wheel,
And mingling rays their vows shall seal,—
Their orbits intertwine."

Of mediæval legends we have "The Last of the Hohenstauffers," "The Siege of Damascus," and "The Legend of Ballyfynnion;" and, besides these varieties, a number of lyrical translations from German, Italian, and Spanish writers, which afford ample testimony to the author's general accomplishments.

DRIFTING CLOUDS.*

"E. B." has told a plain and unambitious story in an easy and natural manner; and, considering that it is a first performance, there is some satisfaction in being able to state that, if it shows no great excellencies, neither does it exhibit any great or glaring faults. Lilla Howard, who may be looked upon as a decidedly fast young lady, inasmuch as she has beaten her cousin Frank in a foot-race, and is an adept at cricket and probably other manly sports, having arrived at the critical age of sixteen, is naturally looking forward with some impatience to the possession of a husband of "wealth, great talents, and position in society." Frank, who is much enamoured of her, she only regards as a boy belonging to a marching regiment, and recommends him, on his arrival in India, to look out for a more favourable reception among the fair ones there than she at least is likely to accord him here. Moreover, she does not approve of waiting, as he proposes, for ten years before entering into an engagement with any one else. Her mother, a gay and blooming widow, with only one other child besides Lilla—Charlie, who does not much trouble the reader—is, in consequence of living rather beyond her resources, desirous of getting her daughter off her hands as soon as possible, expecting her, of course, to make a brilliant match in point of wealth and other worldly advantages. Ernest Clifford, a young clergyman, having come at this time to the village, Woodley, where they reside, and being of a pious character, and desirous of improving the social condition of the neighbourhood, endeavours naturally to interest both the ladies in the management of schools, visiting the poor, and such like occupations; but succeeds only with the daughter, and that to merely a partial extent. The tendencies of both Lilla and her mother are towards a life of fashion and frivolity, though accompanied with some vain struggles on the part of the former, who has a nature capable of better feelings, and the sense to appreciate worthier objects than are to be found much in vogue among the gay and thoughtless. Clifford, in the meantime, finds himself possessed by a deep and ineradicable feeling of love, inspired by Lilla, which has grown upon him insensibly; and Lilla, on her part also completely devoted in heart to Ernest, makes a similar discovery to herself,—without either knowing the other's feelings. In the mutual unconsciousness of this great fact, in their utter ignorance of each other's sentiments, lies the knot of the story.

"The hour drew on when they must part. A strange cold chill seemed to rest upon every one. They sat together, she so young and fair, so lovely, and who would be so courted by the fashionable world; how dared he, a poor man, though noble and true-hearted, speak to her of love? And she? She was a woman, she must not by word or look betray to him how dear he was to her; and thus they were to part—yea part, perhaps, for ever, without one thought having passed between them. Thus they sat together, side by side, each heart full to bursting; gladly would each have turned aside, and wept; and yet they talked and even smiled, as if they were but ordinary acquaintances. Poor human nature!"

Mrs. Howard and her daughter go to town, where they enjoy a brilliant season, towards the expiration of which, having refused many eligible offers, Lilla is informed by her mamma that her position and circumstances are such that it will be necessary for her to

* Sunshine and Shadows; or, Sketches of Thought, Philosophic and Religious. By William Benton Clulow. London: Longmans.

† Poems. By Ellinor J. S. Maitland. London and Cambridge: Macmillan.

* Drifting Clouds. By E. B. Two vols. London: E. Marlborough & Co.

accept the next, from whomsoever it may come. The next comes from a Mr. Ashton, a man of fashion, and, it is supposed, of fortune, but who is given unhappily to dissipation and habits of play. However much attached in heart to Ernest, she has to give him up at the bidding of her mother's imperious necessities, and she accordingly marries Ashton at the parish church of her own residence, the young rector of course excusing himself from the performance of the ceremony. From this point, the "Drifting Clouds" of sorrow thickly accumulate, and painfully obscure the course of Lilla's history. At first, indeed, her married life has some gleams of comfort, but ultimately the habit of gaming gains upon her husband to such an extent that he loses the mansion and estates which he had inherited, becomes an outcast, almost a beggar, and it indirectly leads to his death at a steeplechase by a fall from his horse. Reduced to misery and penury, suffering privations, persecutions, and insults of all kinds, poor Lilla pays the price of her own and her mother's pride, "with a vengeance." How and by what means she recovers from the depth of her distress, what are the future fortunes of herself, her mother, her cousin, and Ernest Clifford, and what effect her trials and troubles have upon her heart, will all be found agreeably and instructively narrated in these volumes.

A MANUAL OF RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.*

THE translator of Dr. Réville's useful work, in presenting it in an English dress, has done good service to the religious public of this country. For, although there is much in the volume with which large classes of English theologians will not agree, it is at any rate useful to compare our own standards of truth in such matters with those which are accepted in other countries. To all seriously disposed youth desirous of a text-book of religious instruction and a guide to Christian doctrine, more explicit, more comprehensive, and at the same time less diffuse and scholastic, than the ordinary catechisms or educational summaries, Dr. Réville offers a manual which, together with the study of other works, conceived in a somewhat different school of religious interpretation, may help to enlarge the mind and lead to the formation of fixed ideas. The work is drawn up with a view to the instruction of young people who are receiving a careful education. Religious instruction is not to be confounded with Christian faith. The latter, says the author, is in its everlasting substance of a divine simplicity; and this manual will put the fact beyond a doubt. But the theoretical knowledge of religious truth we ought, on the contrary, to elaborate as much as possible. The study of the present work is designed to call forth in the scholar the habit of religious reflection, and lead him, of his own accord, to self-examination in matters of religion. Merely ethical tenets are not brought forward prominently, because these are the natural outgrowth of the truly religious spirit, the Christian religion being penetrated from one end to the other with the influence of a lofty morality. "In general," our author concludes, "it is in a profound attachment to the three great connected causes—the cause of religion, the cause of Christ, the cause of religious reformation—that this book has been written; and if there is a truth which now more than ever we ought to welcome and espouse, it is this—that the causes which are truly sacred have everything to hope for and nothing to fear from liberty."

The manual is divided into three parts:—1. Religious History; 2. Teachings of Jesus; 3. Religious Doctrine. To give an idea of the general scope of the treatise, and the extent and variety of the instructive matter it contains, we cannot do better than note down the different headings comprised under each part separately. 1. Religious history; origin and diversity of religions; polytheistic religions; Shemitic monotheism; Mosaism; Judaism; the evangelical history; the Apostolic Church; the Christian Church under the Roman empire; struggle of Christianity with polytheism; the ancient Catholic Church; the Church of the middle ages; the propagation of Christianity; Islamism; Roman Catholicism; the Reformation, and modern times. Part 2. The new law; the propagation of the kingdom; the unbelieving generation; the parables of the kingdom; great and small; worthy and unworthy; denunciation of hypocrisy; last warnings. Part 3. Introduction; God; man; sin; Christianity; Christ: His person; His work; the Holy Spirit; inspiration; the Church; the Christian life; the life eternal. The whole concludes with a summary of the course of religious doctrine developed in the earlier pages. We may sometimes disagree with the author's conclusions, but we must commend his earnestness and intellectual power.

THREE ESSAYS.†

ALL these essays are distinguished for close and sustained reasoning on their respective subjects. In the first, the author investigates the distinction between learning and science. He takes as popular examples of the class of men represented by each, Newton and Dalton, Johnson and Gibbon. The scientific are investigators or discoverers of natural truths; the learned, the collectors and custodians of accumulated knowledge. The grand difference he states to be this—that the scientific man regards the facts of his

subject as the basis on which to rise to higher knowledge; but the learned man rests on the facts of his subject as the end of his study. But no definition exactly comprises, or is equivalent to, its subject. There are scientific men who are not only investigators, but discoverers, such as Newton and Kepler; some who are learned, and some who are ignorant as regards ordinary acquirements, such as Fergusson. There are learned men who are not only collectors of knowledge, but creators, so to speak, such as Bacon; and others who, together with both these characteristics, though doubtless in a less degree, are, like Herschel and Brewster, scientific investigators. The power to generalize—that basis upon which the most important stand-points of science have been in all ages erected—is a power distinct both from that of scientific investigation and of accumulative knowledge; when combined, grand discoveries are the result. The great steps in science, says the essayist, consist in the discovery of conceptions, and the verification of them in nature. But conceptions, such as Newton's, of the force of gravitation, or Franklin's, of the identity of lightning and electricity, are only generalizations or conclusions, which are the triple product of imagination, reason, and the observation of facts. In other words, the mental conception of a truth, or a discovery, is a result, not an original cause. The author's argument respecting abstractions, comparisons, and conceptions, is elaborate and ingenious; but through this we have not space to follow him, dissenting, as we are compelled to do, from some of his positions. A fact, says the writer, is a truth of smaller generality; a theory, a truth of greater generality. Here appears a sad confusion of terms. A fact in the first place is not a thing of which generality in any degree can be predicated; it is by nature special and solitary. Secondly, a thing may be either a fact or a theory, such as the elliptical revolution of a planet round the sun; but it cannot be both at the same time, nor at any time can the same thing be both. Again, the author seems to confound facts and truths. The distinction between them is obvious enough. A fact can no more by any process become a truth than the occurrence of an event such as a fact, or the existence of any object, can become a law of the mind. An asserted fact may be, or not be; but if it be, it is not a truth; and if it be not, it is not therefore a lie—it is nothing. Lastly, to affirm that a theory is a truth of greater generality than a fact, is to beg the principle of the position altogether, for a theory may be either true or false. To say that a theory—and how can a theory be anything but a matter of dubiety?—may be a truth of greater generality, &c., is not agreeable to reason. The difference between the scientific and the learned man, the author concludes, in reverting to his original theme, is that the former verifies the conceptions of his mind, whether derived from stores of knowledge already accumulated, or from observation, and thus comes to have a knowledge from nature itself. It is by the endeavour to evolve principles from facts that all progress in the development of human intellect has been made. The essay on science and language—the latter as the main instrument of thought, and assisted by diagram, picture, mathematical formula, &c.; and the concluding essay on language and poetry, in which the writer analyses various definitions of poetry, and discusses the opinions of Wordsworth, Mill, Ruskin, and others thereon—are replete with interesting and instructive, although it may be added inconclusive, remarks; for it is a subject on which, from the days of Aristotle downwards, the metaphysician and the ignoramus have been on a par.

BAPTISTA.*

"BAPTISTA" is not only "a quiet story," but a rational and agreeable one, marked by many useful lessons. The keynote of the work is to be found in the remark of Bacon, that the duties of life are more than life; and the two principal characters exemplify the respective careers of those who neglect and those who fulfil their personal and conventional responsibilities. Baptista, the only child of a wealthy and aristocratic English gentleman, born while her parents are on a tour in Spain, has the misfortune to lose her mother a few days after her birth; and her father, Colonel Greville, who had been passionately devoted to his wife, and is broken-hearted by her loss, brings home the child to England, treating her with the most tender assiduity possible. To such a degree does his uncontrolled affection extend, that she is permitted to have her own way in everything; her studies, as she grows up, being conducted exclusively on the principle of making things pleasant to her. This mode of bringing up of course has its fruit. To anything that bears upon it the aspect of a duty, in a moral sense, she has as violent an antipathy as the most uncompromising free-trader to any impost, under the same name, of a commercial character. Not that she is altogether without a knowledge of what is right. By the example of some of those about her—her governess, and a childish companion, Lewis Egerton, son of her father's oldest and most valued friend, and who is a frequent visitor—she gains an occasional insight into the sphere of moral duty, involving the idea of sacrificing her own will to another's, and deferring her own gratification to that of some one else; but the glimpse she allows herself of this unexplored region is not very inviting, and she reverts to the conclusion, more consonant with "the devices and desires of her own heart," that, if a given course of conduct be disagreeable to her mind, not all the propriety in the

* A Manual of Religious Instruction. By Albert Réville, D.D., Pastor at Rotterdam. London: Simpkin, Marshall, and Co.

† Three Essays: 1. Learning and Science; 2. Science and Language; 3. Language and Poetry. London: Smith, Elder, & Co.

* Baptista; a Quiet Story. By the Author of "The Four Sisters." London: Bell & Daldy.

world should induce her to adopt it. Her father is habitually so indulgent that any plan, even for the benefit of his humbler tenantry or dependents, for the improvement of his estates, or for the gratification of his friends, if chancing to be opposed to a whim or caprice of Baptista's, is sacrificed without scruple. Mr. Greville's own wishes, though most moderate in their kind, his own warnings and expostulations, though of the mildest description, his own promises, though of the most deliberate character, are disappointed, disregarded, dishonoured. With all this, Baptista, though coquettish, capricious, *exigeante*, and self-willed, is clever, accomplished, kind, good-natured, not destitute of sensibility, and even at times conscious of dissatisfaction with herself when most triumphant; indeed, generally, there are few things people so much regret as having their own way. That young persons so introduced into the world have a long pent-up accumulation of troubles in store for them, to be encountered in after years, is pretty certain to all who are in any degree acquainted with human life. That Baptista's case is no exception to this position, and that she undergoes her inevitable trials, to the purification of her heart and the elevation of her moral character, by means of a gentler ordeal than might have been imagined, though it could hardly have produced a more efficacious result, the reader may learn to his satisfaction from the pages of this charming and instructive story.

MEADOW LEIGH.*

SOCIETY has been of late very painfully interested by accounts of the treatment of lunatic patients, both in private asylums and by members of their own family. The question, moreover, as to the difference in nature, or the appreciable boundaries, between absolute unsoundness and palpable eccentricity, is a very delicate one. The work before us is principally based upon a case of this kind, some portions of the narrative forcibly reminding the reader of an affair which only a few years ago attracted public attention. In the present story, a Miss Clairvaux, a rather strong-minded female, of the genus old maid, who lives in a lonely house, with none but female attendants, being desirous of a companion, sends for a young lady named Eleanor Graydon, with whose welfare she has charged herself, until, at least, some more eligible position can be secured for her. Miss Clairvaux's income, which belongs to that tolerably extensive class styled "limited," is partly derived from her deceased mother's settlement, executed at the time of her first marriage, and partly from other sources which she enjoyed in common with her step-father's son, also the issue of a prior marriage. This gentleman (Mr. Foljambe) has been endeavouring for some time to persuade Miss Clairvaux to sign a deed jointly with himself, by which certain moneys, the proceeds of which they divide between them, may be diverted from their present use, and be re-invested on what he represents as more profitable securities. This step Miss Clairvaux, knowing the dangerous and uncertain issue of such experiments, steadily resists, to the discomfiture and exasperation of Mr. Foljambe, who, becoming acquainted in the course of time with repeated instances of peculiar and eccentric conduct on the lady's part, mostly from the exercise of an ever-active benevolence, though in an odd and unconventional manner, becomes possessed by the idea, partly instigated of course by a feeling of self-interest, that these peculiarities of character and conduct might warrant the treatment of her as a person unfit to be entrusted with the management of her own affairs, and requiring therefore an amount of salutary restriction. Aided by certain members of the legal and medical professions, obscure in their position and lax in their principles, as well as needy and pliable, he accomplishes, by a well-laid plot, the abduction of the lady, advantage being taken of the temporary absence of Eleanor Graydon, and of another member of Miss Clairvaux's domestic establishment. The unceasing exertions of Eleanor in the detection of the plot; the extraordinary manner in which the place of her kind friend's seclusion becomes revealed to her; the enlistment in her behalf of her old heroic champion, "Vindex," a wealthy literary recluse who is suspected of occasional anonymous authorship in the columns of the *Times*; and the detail of all the complicated manoeuvres which these two find necessary to bring home to the suspected party proofs of the perpetration of the outrage,—are developed, it is only fair to say, with not less ingenuity than probability; while the gossip of the neighbourhood on such an event, and the ridiculous slanders usually current under such circumstances, are hit off with a ludicrous fidelity to actual life, which fully justifies the writer in the use of the secondary title she has adopted for her story—a story which, if we mistake not, will add to the reputation she has already acquired.

THE BOOK OF REVELATION.†

MR. CLARKE has certainly given an admirable digest of the Apocalypse. The subject is well arranged, and his own views are temperately put, without that over-confident interpretation of the symbols of the several visions which is found in so many expositors of this volume. The style is vigorous in both the argumentative and descriptive parts, and calculated to carry the reader onwards in the study of what has been always felt to be a difficult and per-

plexing subject. Mr. Clarke inclines to the opinion that the chief portion of the prophecies have yet to be fulfilled, and we do not find in him many speculations as to the approach in a few years of the end of the world. Also, the Pope is not necessarily "the Man of Sin;" neither is he "Antichrist." These are probably great kings yet to come—the former of Rome, and the latter of Greece. As to "the number of the beast," he also pronounces no opinion with respect to its being the mark of the popedom. The interpretations of these types are yet in the future, and to be brought out only by the fulfilment of the prophetic visions themselves. This is a quiet, sensible book, and, on account of its freedom from dogmatic assertion, well worthy of the perusal of those interested in the Apocalypse.

SHORT NOTICES.

Work in the World; or, a Life worth Living. By the Author of "The Kingdom and the People," "Young Susan's First Place," &c. (London: Seeley, Jackson, and Halliday.)—The authoress of this little tale is well known in religious circles as an advocate of a more active and vital Christianity than is exhibited by many professing Christians. The object of her present story is to show what may be done by young ladies who have the energy, courage, and religious fervour to seek out the ignorant and demoralized in their haunts, and infuse in them the principles of Evangelical knowledge. The heroine is a certain Margaret Bruce, who, owing to a rather frivolous example in her parents, is content for some time to lead a life of elegant uselessness, but who, after a severe illness, awakes to other thoughts, and becomes quite a model home missionary. How she sorrowed, suffered, and learnt, and how in the end she made a "capital match" with "a man of large landed property, bent on improving the condition of his tenants," may be learned by the curious reader who will refer to the volume itself.

Morning Prayer. The Arranged as Said Edition of the Book of Common Prayer, &c. (London: Rivingtons.)—The object of this edition of the Book of Common Prayer is to "facilitate the return to the Church of some who, having been brought up in separation from her communion, continue in that separation from feeling as strangers in her sanctuaries, because, untaught in the order of her services, they cannot join intelligently and freely in her spiritual worship, and not from any lack of sympathy with her teaching." To conduce to this end, the prayers are arranged as said, and every convenience that a judicious management of type can offer is provided for the use of the uninstructed in such exercises.

The County Families of the United Kingdom. By Edward Walford, M.A. (London: Hardwicke.)—The second edition, greatly enlarged, of this splendid and valuable work is before us. It is corrected up to the 31st of December, and is dedicated, by special permission, to the Prince of Wales. The volume almost rivals the "Post-office Directory" in size; and compiler, publisher, printer, and binder, have conspired to produce a work at once magnificent and useful.

Confessions of the Faculty; with Comments. By A Medical Practitioner. (London: Clayton.)—The object of the "Medical Practitioner" is to convict the allopathic doctors, by quotations from their own writings, of being profoundly, and even professedly, ignorant of the bases of their own theory. "All the extracts," says the compiler, "are from the speeches and writings of professors, lecturers, physicians, and surgeons, of the old or allopathic schools of medicine. Nothing has been quoted for or against either system from the writings of homœopathic practitioners." The reader, however, will easily infer from these statements that the author of the pamphlet is a devoted follower of the modern system of Dr. Hahnemann; and such is the fact. The little treatise presents an interesting argument on a very important question, and contains some singular revelations of the state of hesitation and doubt in which the minds of many medical men are plunged with regard to the fundamental principles of their profession.

Thoughts on Free Inquiry, Evidences, and Subscription. By C. E. Prichard, M.A., Rector of South Luffenham, Rutland, Prebendary of Wells, late Fellow of Balliol College, Oxford. (London: Longman & Co.)—Seeking to make the best of the "free inquiry" of these days, Mr. Prichard expresses his belief that many points connected with Biblical history and criticism may fairly be considered open questions, and that even if an inquirer comes to a wrong judgment with regard to them, he is not necessarily to be considered a bad Christian or an irreligious man. He thinks, however, that this liberty is not yet practically conceded by public opinion; and, although he is in favour of maintaining some form of subscription for candidates entering into holy orders, he is yet desirous of seeing the existing terms of subscription relaxed in favour of the more liberal principles of modern times, so as to get rid of whatever is not essential to "the preservation of pure religion and Christian faith." He mentions several parts of the Book of Common Prayer to which many conscientious and devout men object, and suggests that something might be done by competent authority to eliminate what is "superfluous or obsolete," while retaining "the great truths of the Gospel, and the principles of the National Church." We need hardly urge, however, that the difficulty is in getting men to agree as to what is "superfluous or obsolete." With regard to the study of evidences, Mr. Prichard would have the young begin with the New Testament, because it presents fewer difficulties of a minute and technical kind than the Old Testament, and because the belief in the supernatural which it inspires helps to illustrate and explain the earlier volume. This is a view which has been already advocated in these columns in replying to Dr. Colenso.

Viscount Amberley has reprinted from the *North British Review* his recent article on the same subject, under the title of *A Few Words on Clerical Subscription in the Church of England*. (Edinburgh: Edmonston & Douglas.) His Lordship's views are in some respects similar to those of Mr. Prichard, and, apart from the ability of the

* Meadow Leigh: a Tale of English Country Life. By the Author of "The Ladies of Bever Hollow." London: Bentley.

† An Essay towards the Interpretation of the Apocalypse, &c. By the Rev. B. Stracey Clarke, Rector of Little Braxted. London: Rivingtons.

article, it is interesting to know what is held on such a subject by the son and heir of Earl Russell.

The Rev. C. K. Paul, Vicar of Sturminster-Marshall, has selected and edited *A Reading Book for Evening Schools*, designed for the use of the more advanced classes. (London: Longman & Co.) It will be found very useful.

We have received Part I. of Dr. R. G. Latham's edition of Johnson's *Dictionary of the English Language*, founded on the edition of Mr. H. J. Todd. (Longman & Co.) This is what is called a "trade edition," and promises to be a very excellent one. The etymologies have been carefully revised by the light shed on such inquiries from the philological researches of the present century; several words sanctioned by modern usage are newly introduced; and examples are given from classical authors who arose since the time of Johnson, and even from some of our living writers. We must reserve any extended criticism on the work until its completion.

THE SHAKESPEARE TERCENTENARY.

THE Council of the National Shakespeare Committee had a meeting on Tuesday, at which arrangements with respect to the approaching celebration were reported. The festival will commence on Thursday, April 21st, when there will be a Shakespearian musical performance at the Royal Agricultural Hall, in which Madame Lemmens-Sherrington, Miss Emma Heywood, Miss Julia Elton, Mr. Sims Reeves, Mr. Wilby Cooper, Mr. George Perren, Mr. J. Benedict, and a choir of 2,000 voices, will take part, and for which Mr. G. A. Macfarren has composed a song and chorus. The 22nd will be signalled by a concert at St. James's Hall, and a new Shakespearian masque on a grand scale. On the day itself—Saturday, the 23rd—we are to have Shakespearian readings, special dramatic performances, and banquets; and on the 25th a "monster entertainment" will be devoted to the working classes.

The Stratford-on-Avon Committee have also published a programme of their commemoration entertainments, to be given in the great Pavilion, which, it is stated, is capable of seating 5,000 persons. On the 23rd there will be a banquet, the tickets for which are sold at a guinea. On Monday morning, the 25th, the "Messiah" will be performed, under the leadership of Mr. Mellon, and with Mademoiselle Tietjens, Madame Sainton-Dolby, Mr. Sims Reeves, and Mr. Santley, for the singers. This will be followed in the evening by a concert, supported by the same artists, with the addition of Madame Parepa, Miss Arabella Goddard, and others. On Tuesday evening, "Twelfth Night" will be performed by the Haymarket company, including Mr. Buckstone's and Mr. Compton's admirable impersonations of Sir Toby Belch and Sir Andrew Aguecheek; after which, Mr. Sothorn is to appear in "a short, one act entertainment, of peculiar construction." On Wednesday evening, Mr. Fechter and his Lyceum troupe are to act "Hamlet." On Thursday evening, "As You Like It" will be given, with Miss Helen Faucit in the part of Rosalind, and Mrs. Keeley, Mr. Creswick, Mr. W. Farren, Mr. Compton, Mr. Chippendale, Mr. James Bennett, &c., for the other characters. The celebration will be wound up on Friday evening by a grand fancy dress ball; tickets by voucher, one guinea. The dramatic programme is good; though we confess to a lurking—perhaps a prejudiced—wish that Hamlet had found a more national representative. Without saying anything against Mr. Fechter's abilities as an actor, it would perhaps have been more agreeable to see an Englishman in the part, especially when we have so admirable a native actor as Mr. Phelps, whose name, owing to a disagreement with the Stratford Committee, we regret to miss. However, it may be urged that the universality of Shakespeare's genius overpasses the bounds of nationality; and, though we think Mr. Phelps should have had the first offer, Mr. Fechter is undoubtedly, now that Mr. Charles Kean is at the other side of the globe, the next in rank.

Readers of the present day may not be generally aware that the first proposal for a celebration of Shakespeare's birthday was made by Leigh Hunt in his periodical, the *Indicator*, four and forty years ago; not, indeed, with reference to the Tercentenary, which was then nearly half a century in advance, but as an annual tribute to the memory of the greatest of Englishmen. Some of his remarks may be interesting at the present moment. He observes:—"It is in the power of every admirer of Shakespeare to honour the day privately. Rich or poor, busy or at leisure, all may do it. The busiest finds time to eat his dinner, and may pitch one considerate glass of wine down his throat. The poorest may call him to mind, and drink his memory in honest water. The dinner does not much signify. The sparest or the most abundant will equally suit the various fortunes of the great poet, only it will be as well for those who can afford wine to pledge Falstaff in a cup of 'sherris sack.' After dinner, Shakespeare's volumes will come well on the table, lying among the dessert like laurels, where there is one, and supplying it where there is not. Instead of songs, the persons present may be called upon for scenes. But no stress need be laid on this proposition, if they do not like to read out loud. The pleasure of the day should be as much at liberty as possible; and if the company prefer conversation, it will not be very easy for them to touch upon any subjects which Shakespeare shall not have touched upon also." The following passage might be considered prophetic:—"The lustre and utility of intellectual power is so increasing in the eyes of the world that we do not despair of seeing the time when Shakespeare's birthday will be a subject of public rejoicing; when the regular feast will be served up in tavern and dwelling-house, the bust crowned with laurel, and the theatres sparkle with illuminations." It was only the other day that some gentleman suggested the annual observance of Shakespeare's birthday as a national holiday.

LITERARY GOSSIP.

WE are sorry to announce the decease, at the Charter House, of Mr. William Andrew Chatto, well known as the author of an important work on the history of wood-engraving, which was illustrated by Mr. Jackson, who not unfrequently advertised the work as his own compilation. Mr. Chatto came from the North—from the banks of the Tyne, we believe,—and most of his early works (somewhat similar in design to Izaak Walton's delightful "Contemplative Man's Recreation") bore the *nom de plume* of Stephen Oliver. He arrived in London nearly forty years ago, and his first labours were for the magazines. Amongst his works were, "A Paper of Tobacco," and "A Pinch of Snuff," published by Messrs. Chapman & Hall, with comic little wood engravings, which were then in fashion as illustrations for amusing literature aiming at instruction. Mr. Chatto's reading was wide and varied, and perhaps no literary man of modern times gave one so good an idea of the famous Florentine Magliabecchi. Mr. Chatto was a great reader; he was as well known at book-stalls as Lord Spencer was formerly at book-auctions. Thousands of volumes, from the huge folio to the handy duodecimo, are at this moment in circulation bearing pencil memoranda and other evidences of his reading. His scholarship was remarkable for its range, and dusty Greek tomes were his delight quite as much as the badly-printed quartos of Spain, or the elegant productions of Italy. Like many other persons in the literary world, Mr. Chatto entertained peculiar opinions as to the duty and obligations of a literary man. He considered that in every case perfection of workmanship should be aimed at before a monetary or any other interest. He would not hurry a literary undertaking for the sake of any publishing interests. Books for the moment, or those especially prepared for some occasion, were abominations in his eyes. He was especially well informed in all that appertains to the history of art, and the suggestions and help which he occasionally gave to his friend, Mr. Tom Taylor, were very highly appreciated by the latter. About one and twenty years ago, Mr. Chatto started a comic serial with the title of *Puck*. It was somewhat larger than *Punch*, but of a similar character, and possessing illustrations not very unlike those which embellished the earlier numbers of the *London Charivari*. Stirling Coyne, Albert Smith, Tom Taylor, George Hodden, and others contributed to it, and for a time it obtained a paying circulation; but the publication of other literary schemes of a comic and satirical character, where the promoters possessed more capital than fell to the lot of the *Puck* proprietors, led to its relinquishment. Amongst Mr. Chatto's publications may be enumerated "Rambles in Northumberland," "Scenes and Recollections of Fly Fishing," and "Facts and Speculations on the Origin and History of Playing Cards." The latter work is of the most interesting historical character, and is as highly prized on the Continent as it is here. Mr. Chatto wrote many prefaces, introductions, and other booksellers' helps, which do not bear his name.

The publishers of *Punch* have at last determined upon breaking up their twenty-three years' accumulation of wit and fun. Amongst the printers' boys, paper boys, errand boys, newspaper men, compositors, pressmen, bookbinders, and others connected with the trade, who swarm in the neighbourhood of *Punch's* office "over against" St. Bride's Church, there has long existed a story of underground cellars and capacious vaults crammed with the "plant" and literary labours of the renowned *Punch*. A mine of untold wealth is popularly believed to exist under No. 85, Fleet-street. Tons of metal plates (for all the numbers of *Punch* are stereotyped), and tens of thousands of Leech's and Tenniel's wood blocks, are said to exist there, and these coffers of wit and humour are now going to be opened. Mr. Mark Lemon is to commence first of all with the poetry, and the publishers, Messrs. Bradbury & Evans, promise at an early day a selection from 1842 to 1860.

In the present American war, the press forms part of the material of the Federal army. During the recent Northern successes in Tennessee, three new daily papers in the anti-slavery interest were established at Nashville, Murfreesboro', and Chattanooga.

Although Mr. Bohn has sold his well known "Libraries" to Messrs. Bell & Daldy, he will still carry on his business in second-hand books, and what are technically termed in the trade "remainders," for some time to come. It has been stated that Messrs. Sotheby & Co. will sell the choicer portion of his valuable stock during the present season. Some time ago, Mr. Bohn endeavoured to found a library company, under some such title as "Bohn's Library Company." This was to be in a great many shares at a low price, a considerable number of which Mr. Bohn would purchase and hold. The scheme, however, did not find supporters, and it is now understood that the world-famous "Libraries" have been sold for £30,000.

It is stated that two hundred paper-makers have presented an address to the House of Commons, complaining of the disadvantages they labour under from the unfair competition of other countries which refuse the free export of rags, and yet claim to send in their paper free of duty. We think they have good ground of complaint, and that the Government should strain every nerve to obtain the relief asked for. In Paris, some pamphlets have been published on the manufacture of paper, and one has just been issued in Turin on the same subject. This brochure seems to have been inspired by the trade, for it presses upon the Government the advisability of raising the export duty on rags from 8*l.* for a hundredweight to 12*l.*—a demand not likely to be successful, especially as no attempt is made to show a decline in the business. Italy produced last year 21,400,000 kilos of paper, a small part of which has been exported to England; the chief markets, however, are the East and South America.

The annual general meeting of the members of the Literary Fund took place on Wednesday at the Society's chambers. The registrar's report represented the Fund as having been in full activity during the past year. Several elections to vacancies in the different departments of the management, arising from death, resignation, and other causes, followed the reading of the report, and the chairman (the Earl of

Stanhope) announced that the Prince of Wales had consented to preside at the annual dinner on the 18th of May.

Gustave Doré's recently published magnificent edition of "Don Quixote" is rapidly becoming exhausted. The work has met with a marked success in every capital in Europe where fine books are appreciated and purchased. The artist spent nearly two years in Spain taking sketches. A Paris publication has recently commissioned him to illustrate a work on Italy, and the most wonderful draughtsman of the nineteenth century has betaken himself to that sunny clime.

The remaining portion of the fifth and concluding volume of the new edition of Brunet's "Manuel du Libraire" has just been published by Messrs. Didot, of Paris. The volume concludes with a most interesting "Notice on Gothic 'Hours,' printed at Paris, at the end of the fifteenth and during part of the sixteenth century." It is stated that M. Ambroise Firmin Didot possesses one of the finest collections extant of those ancient devotional books known as "Hours," and it is from this rich store that he has largely drawn in the bibliographical notice, which, if we mistake not, is partly, if not entirely, from his pen.

Mr. Edmund Routledge has enlarged his "Every Boy's Magazine," and we hear that a great many gentlemen who have gained a literary reputation in juvenile circles will write for it during the present year. Mr. W. H. Kingston is to contribute a new tale, which will extend to several numbers; Mr. Thos. Miller, Mr. Wm. Dalton, Mr. C. H. Bennett, Mr. James Grant, the Rev. H. C. Adams, and Mr. R. M. Ballantyne, have all agreed to furnish stories and instructive articles.

The last division of "Lowndes's Bibliographers' Manual," from the letter V to Z, will be published in a few days. Mr. Bohn will give much additional bibliographical information under the heads "Vaughan;" the famous "John Vicars" of the Commonwealth period; "Virgil," with the various English translations; "Wakefield," "Wales," "Welsh Literature," "Walpole," "Warburton," "Ned Ward," the literary publican of Wapping; "Warton," "George Whetstone," the old English poet; "Kirke White;" "Robert Whytton," whose school-books were printed by Wynkyn de Worde and Pynson; "Wickliffe," "John Wilkes," "Browne Willis," "George Withers," "Woodfall," and other heads. A supplementary volume to the entire work, to contain much curious and interesting literary matter which has accumulated during the progress of the work, is also in preparation and will be shortly published.

Mr. Murray announces two important new works of travel, entitled "Siam, Cambodia, and Lao," by Henri Mouhot, with illustrations, in 2 vols.; and "Rambles in the Deserts of Syria, and among the Turkomans and Bedaweens"—the latter, we presume, by Mr. Palgrave, whose paper on this subject attracted so much attention at the meeting last week of the Geographical Society. Mr. Murray has also in preparation, chiefly for publication during the present month, "A Life of General Sir William Napier, with Extracts from his Correspondence," edited by H. A. Bruce, M.P., with portraits, 2 vols.; "Metallurgy of Iron and Steel," by J. Percy, F.R.S., with 4 large plans, and 200 illustrations to scale, 2 vols.; "The Diary of a Dutiful Son," by the late T. G. Fonnereau; "A History of the Interregnum, from the Death of Charles I. to the Battle of Dunbar, 1648-50, from MSS. in the State Paper Office," &c., by Andrew Bisset; "A New History of Painting in Italy," derived from historical researches as well as inspections of the works of art in that country, by J. A. Crowe and G. B. Cavalcaselle, with illustrations, 2 vols.; and a work entitled "The Music of the most Ancient Nations, particularly of the Assyrians, Egyptians, and Hebrews, with special reference to the Discoveries in Western Asia and in Egypt," by Carl Engel, illustrated.

Mr. Bentley is about to publish a series of popular stories by the best Danish novelists, entitled "The Danes Sketched by Themselves," translated by Mrs. Bushby, in 3 vols.; also, "St. Petersburg and Warsaw—Scenes witnessed during a Residence in Russia and Poland in the Years 1863-4," with portraits of Mouravieff and the Grand Duchess Constantine and her family.

Mr. Charles Knight will shortly have ready a "School History of England," being an abridgment of his "Popular History of England." It will be published by Messrs. Bradbury & Evans. "Histories of England" for lads seem just now to be in considerable demand. Messrs. Macmillan, of Cambridge, will shortly issue "A Boy's History of England," by the Rev. Charles Kingsley; and "A Short History of England down to the Reformation," by Goldwin Smith, M.A.

The "Diary of Mary Countess Cowper, Lady of the Bedchamber to Caroline, Princess of Wales," will shortly be published by Mr. Murray.

An English translation of Hans Christian Andersen's new work, "In Spain, a Narrative of Wanderings in 1863," will shortly be published.

The Rev. H. M. Scarth, Rector of Bathwick, has announced a work on the Roman antiquities of Bath, under the title of "Aque Solis; Notices of Roman Bath." The Roman city of Aque Solis appears to have been a sort of capital of the western part of Britain, which there are abundant reasons for believing was the centre of fashion and wealth in the Roman province. As might be supposed, Bath is rich in antiquities, and nobody is better qualified to treat them in an instructive manner than Mr. Scarth, who is well known to antiquaries by a number of excellent archaeological essays. Mr. Scarth's work is to be published by subscription.

It is rather a surprising proof of the number of believers in spiritualism that a Sunday paper has been started in France, professing to be the organ of this delusion. It is published at Bordeaux, and bears the presumptuous title of *Le Sauveur des Peuples, Journal du Spiritisme*.

M. Hennin, a celebrated collector of autographs, medals, &c., has left more than 10,000 autographs to the library of the Institute,

amongst which is a series of interesting letters of Voltaire, written to the father of the above gentleman.

Liberty of the press is about to be established in Turkey. The system of *avertissemens*, hitherto pursued by the Government, will be abolished. All public prints, however, will be subject, for libel and other press offences, to fine and imprisonment. A special court, it is rumoured, will be instituted for judging cases connected with the press.

One of the oldest of French papers, *Le Nouvelliste*, which has existed for more than a hundred years, having been founded in the reign of Louis XV., has just ceased to exist.

LIST OF NEW PUBLICATIONS FOR THE WEEK.

- Above and Below. By Nicholas Gannon. 2 vols. Cr. 8vo., 21s.
 Adventures of a Donkey. New edit. 18mo., 1s. 6d.
 Alexander (Rev. J. W.), Thoughts on Preaching. Cr. 8vo., 4s.
 Amberley (Viscount), Few Words on Clerical Subscription. 8vo., 1s. 6d.
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 Brown (J.), Bible Truths with Shakespearian Parallels. 2nd edit. Cr. 8vo., 5s.
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 Child (The) of Bethlehem. 12 Illustrations. By J. Von Fuehrick. Folio, 16s.
 Churchman (The) Armed. Cr. 8vo., 4s. 6d.
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 Clay (Rev. W. L.), The Power of the Keys, and other Sermons. Cr. 8vo., 3s. 6d.
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 Marsh (Rev. W.), Handbook of Scripture Truths. New edit. 8vo., 1s.
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MEETINGS OF LEARNED SOCIETIES NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY.

- GEOGRAPHICAL.—At 8.30 P.M. 1. "Notes on the Physical Geography, Climate, and Mineral Resources of Vancouver's Island." By C. Forbes, Esq., M.D., R.N. 2. "The Upper Waters of the Fraser and Peace rivers, with Remarks on the Gold Fields of British Columbia." By Lieut. Palmer, R.E.
 ARCHITECTS.—At 8 P.M.
 MEDICAL.—At 8.30 P.M.
 SOCIETY OF ARTS.—At 8 P.M. Cantor Lecture; "On Art applied to Industry—Furniture." By Mr. Burges.

TUESDAY.

- CIVIL ENGINEERS.—At 8 P.M. "On the Resistance to Bodies passing through Water." (Concluding Part). By Mr. G. H. Phipps.
 STATISTICAL.—At 4 P.M. Anniversary.
 PATHOLOGICAL.—At 8 P.M.
 ANTHROPOLOGICAL.—At 7 P.M.
 ROYAL INSTITUTION.—At 3 P.M. Professor Marshall "On Animal Life."

WEDNESDAY.

- METROLOGICAL.—At 7 P.M.
 SOCIETY OF ARTS.—At 8 P.M. "On the Organization of the Corps Impérial des Ponts et Chaussées in France." By Mr. G. R. Burnell.
 LONDON INSTITUTION.—At 7 P.M.

THURSDAY.

- ROYAL.—At 8.30 P.M. "On the Absorption and Radiation of Heat by Gaseous Matter." By Professor Tyndall. 2. "Remarks on Sun Spots." By B. Stewart, Esq.
 ANTIQUARIES.—At 8 P.M. "On Subterranean Chambers at Treloar Warren in Cornwall." And Exhibition of Diptychon Leodicense. By Mr. Blight.
 LINNEAN.—At 8 P.M.
 CHEMICAL.—At 8 P.M. "On the Theory of Organic Per-oxides." By Sir Benjamin Brodie.
 NUMISMATIC.—At 7 P.M.
 ROYAL INSTITUTION.—At 3 P.M. Professor Marshall "On Animal Life."

FRIDAY.

- ROYAL INSTITUTION.—At 8 P.M. "Contributions to Molecular Physics." By Professor Tyndall.
 PHILOLOGICAL.—At 8 P.M.

SATURDAY.

- ROYAL INSTITUTION.—At 3 P.M. Professor Frankland "On the Metallic Elements."

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